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The Social Studies

Continuing The Historical Outlook

VOLUME XXXIII, NUMBER 8

DECEMBER, 1942

That Great Illusion: The Balance of Power

J. SALWYN SCHAPIRO
The City College, New York

In this greatest of all wars in history man's ingenuity in inventing engines of destruction has surpassed anything known in the past. What many are now wondering is whether mankind will show an equal power of inventiveness when, after peace is established, the problem of constructing a new world order arises. One thing is certain that, no matter how complete and how drastic will be the defeat of the Axis powers, the Europe of the treaty of Versailles is gone, never to return. The conquests of Nazi Germany has thrown the entire state system of Europe into the melting pot; to restore the Europe of 1919 will be as impossible as it was impossible to restore the Europe of 1789 after Napoleon's career of conquest had ended at Waterloo.

Post-war planning is now one of the most popular of intellectual exercises. All the post-war planners of course assume the defeat of the Axis powers; without this assumption schemes for a new world order would be both meaningless and futile. Nazi Germany, if it should win the war, would promptly put into effect her well-known blue print of the "New Order" in Europe in which the nations will be *Gleichschaltet* according to the nazi plan. As hopes of defeating the Axis rise, more and more books appear dealing with

plans for post-war Europe. Among the many solutions offered for preserving peace on the war-torn continent are new applications of the old principle of the balance of power, designed to constrain Germany from starting new wars.

Again the balance of power! For centuries this famous principle of international relations has been the accepted formula, nay the magic phrase, according to which statesmen aimed to prevent wars and to preserve the independence of the nations. Despite the fact that the magic formula proved hopelessly unworkable in one conspicuous instance after another belief in its efficacy persisted, in fact still persists. Not a few serious students of international relations are convinced that what Europe needs is a *new* balance of power which could be created by grouping the small nations of central Europe and of the Balkans into powerful federations. A Europe divided into great powers and great federations would, according to this view, preserve the peace better than a Europe, divided as it has been, into great and small nations.

What is the balance of power that so persistently haunts the diplomatic mind? How did it come into existence? Why did it fail? These are the questions

that I shall try to answer. An examination of its historic past will, I am convinced, reveal its dangerous futility as a guiding principle in the reconstruction of a post-war world.

At the outset, let it be understood that as a fundamental principle of international relations, the balance of power applied only to Europe. The reason is plain: it is the concomitant of the system of sovereign, national states that appeared in Europe, for the first time in history, during the sixteenth century. What was to be the relation between these new political entities? A *modus vivendi* had to be established as some of them were large; others, middle-sized; and still others, small.

Yet all were independent and equal! What determined the character of the new international system was that each state was regarded as the special appanage of the absolute monarch who ruled it. The dynasties that came into power during the sixteenth century, the Tudors in England, the Bourbons in France, the Hapsburgs in Spain, were ambitious rivals who sought to outshine one another by increasing their territory. Consequently no common organization was formed in Europe to regulate relations between the states. As the absolute monarch was "sovereign" in that he had the right to do whatever he pleased in domestic matters so was the state "sovereign" in that it had the right to do what it liked in foreign matters. No matter how small or how large each state, being free and independent, had an unlimited and equal right to wage war for any reason or for no reason. The outcome of this situation was curiously contradictory. In domestic matters the sovereign monarch suppressed feudal anarchy, but in foreign matters he created what has been well-called "international anarchy."

Due to the non-existence of a common European authority unscrupulous monarchs found the field wide open to carry on their aggressive policies. Every nation, great and small, was in constant danger of attack. Dynastic wars became *à la mode* as the method of increasing the prestige of a monarch or the territory of a nation. What has been called "international law," consisting of maxims and rules laid down by Grotius and his followers, did make its appearance. Its object was to moderate, if not to prevent, the evil practices of aggressive nations. However, from its very inception down to this day international law was more honored in the breach than in the observance.

How then could the states preserve their independence, indeed their very existence? The only answer was to maintain the *status quo* the disturbance of which by an ambitious power created general fear. An idea developed which, in essence, meant that, in case any nation embarked on a career of conquest, all the other nations would combine to make war against her. Defeat of the aggressor nation by such a com-

bination would act as a deterrent to all would-be dictators of Europe. This idea became known as the "balance of power." Through its operation a just equilibrium would be established which would promote peace and establish the independence and equality of all the nations in Europe. "One sword holds another in its sheath," was the saying. As an idea the balance of power was a political application of Sir Isaac Newton's mechanistic conception of the universe which profoundly influenced the thought of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. Like the harmonious universe that issued from an equilibrium of natural forces a tranquil Europe would issue from an equilibrium of national power.

But as a policy the balance of power was something far less exalted than a practical aspect of Newtonian philosophy. In truth it was an illustration of the "cultural lag" in international relations. The statesmen of the period failed to see that the great significance of the sovereign, national state was that it marked the advent of a new international order. Only a common international organization, with power to regulate the common interests of the states of Europe, could solve the problem of conflicting national interests without resorting to war. That was seen only by a few imaginative minds: in the seventeenth century by the French statesman, Sully, in his *Grand Design*; and in the eighteenth century by Rousseau and Kant who advocated the establishment of a European confederation to preserve the peace of Europe. But these plans received no attention from the "practical" statesmen of the time.

As a fundamental principle of European diplomacy the balance of power was not formulated until the middle of the seventeenth century. As so often in history it was a situation that produced a theory. There was a general feeling of insecurity in Europe when, in 1520, the Hapsburg king of Spain became Holy Roman Emperor as Charles V. His domains included Spain, Germany, Austria, the Netherlands, and parts of Italy. France and England, fearful that the extent of Hapsburg ambitions was even greater than that of Hapsburg territory, organized coalitions of European states that waged war against Charles and his successors. After almost a century of intermittent warfare the fear of Hapsburg domination was eliminated by the treaty of Westphalia, in 1648, which registered a decisive defeat of that ambitious dynasty.

It now seemed clear that the way to maintain the independence of the European nations was to combine against a would-be conqueror. The balance of power would be restored by a general war in which the aggressor would be defeated and his conquests restored to their rightful sovereigns. However, the vindication of this principle through a general war to establish peace was a method that reminds one of

the origin of roast pig in China, as told in the fanciful tale by Charles Lamb. A house was burned down in order to roast the pig that was placed inside.

Half a century after Westphalia the story was repeated. A new threat to the balance of power came from Louis XIV of France who was not at all deterred by the defeat of the Hapsburgs. Louis' conquest of the Netherlands and of Alsace, his invasions of Germany, and his designs on Spain caused the other nations to fear for their independence. England and Holland took the lead in organizing coalitions that waged many wars against Louis. Again the balance of power was restored, this time by the defeat of Louis. The treaty of Utrecht, in 1713, foiled the Bourbon threat to dominate Europe by shearing France of nearly all her conquests. Once more the house was burned down in order to have roast pig.

About a century later came another, and even greater test of the balance of power when Napoleon tried to conquer Europe. So great was his success that, at the height of his power in 1812, there were only three really independent nations in Europe: France, England, and Russia. Like Louis before him Napoleon faced hostile coalitions, led by England, that finally brought him to Waterloo, and France to the position of a second rank power. To prevent a possible resurgence of French aggression the allies created a system which, they hoped, would insure the preservation of the balance of power as established by the Congress of Vienna in 1815. On the borders of France were organized two strong political units, the German Confederation and the union of Holland and Belgium. Inside France the Bourbon dynasty was restored, which weakened the country by forcing upon it an unpopular government. To prevent disturbances to the peace of Europe the Great Powers formed, in the earlier part of the nineteenth century, what was known as the Holy Alliance, and in the later part of the century, what was known as the Concert of Europe. These combinations asserted the "right of intervention" which, in effect, meant that they would resort to military action whenever the balance of power was threatened, either by revolution or by war. The ways of modern nations are as curious as were the ways of Lamb's ancient Chinese. The powers failed to provide a regular and efficient method for having roast pig without burning down the house. As it turned out the Holy Alliance and the Concert of Europe were merely *organized threats* which proved to be as futile to maintain the peace of Europe as had been the diplomatic moves in the past that resulted in combinations against aggressor states.

The century from the Congress of Vienna, in 1815, to the outbreak of the First World War, in 1914, was the century *par excellence* of the balance of power. By the apologists of the balance of power the nine-

teenth century has been hailed as the "century of peace" when Europe as a whole enjoyed tranquillity. Now, "let us look at the record," to quote the homely phrase of Al Smith. True, no *world* war was waged, but in almost every decade of this century war was going on in some part of Europe. No fewer than thirteen wars¹ were fought on the continent itself, not counting wars fought by European powers in Asia, such as the two wars against China by England and France and the Russo-Japanese War; in Africa, such as the two Boer wars and the war between Italy and Abyssinia; and in North America, such as the Franco-Mexican and Spanish-American wars. Some of the wars fought in Europe such as the Crimean War, the war against Austria by Sardinia and France, the Seven Weeks' War and the Franco-Prussian War, were major conflicts. The Crimean War was almost a general European conflict in which all the Great powers were involved, some as belligerents and others as malevolent neutrals. These wars finally culminated in the First World War which ended the "century of peace."

This record plainly shows the failure of the balance of power to maintain peace. History has proved false the notion that the defeat of an aggressor nation by a coalition of the other nations would act as a deterrent on future aggressions. Every would-be dictator of Europe always believed that he possessed a unique genius, an overwhelming strength that could easily overcome any combination of his opponents. Louis XIV was not deterred by the defeat of Charles V because he was firmly convinced that the compact, highly centralized, well-knit, devoted France under his rule would be more than a match for the combination of little Holland, feudal Germany, and an England divided in her allegiance to William of Orange and the exiled Stuart Pretender. Napoleon was not deterred by the defeat of Louis because he was firmly convinced that, as the heir of the French Revolution, he possessed a driving force that would disorganize all opponents, singly or in combination, and so clear the way for an easy triumph of the French armies. Kaiser Wilhelm was not deterred by the defeat of Napoleon because he was firmly convinced that the German army, the most efficient military force of modern times, had not been beaten and could not be beaten. Sadowa and Sedan had proved it not only to him but to almost every other

¹ These wars were: the Greek War of Independence, 1821-1829, which involved Turkey, Russia, England, and France; the war between Holland and Belgium, 1830; the war between Sardinia and Austria, 1848; the Crimean War, 1853-1856; the war against Austria by Sardinia and France, 1859; the war between Prussia and Denmark, 1864; the Seven Weeks' War, 1866; the Franco-Prussian War, 1870-1871; the Russo-Turkish War, 1877; the Serbo-Bulgarian War, 1885; the Turco-Italian War, 1911; the first Balkan War, 1912; and the second Balkan War, 1913.

German. Hitler was not deterred by the defeat of Kaiser Wilhelm because he was firmly convinced that the "degenerate democracies" would go down like a house of cards before the onslaught of the "master race" that he led.

In truth history teaches that the balance of power is the Great Illusion of international relations. In all its long history it has brought, not peace, but a sword. A close examination of the balance of power principle reveals that its very nature has been provocative of war. In the first place it has aimed to preserve peace by freezing the *status quo*, an impossible task in a Europe that, since feudal times, has been undergoing political changes that were constant and rapid. Insignificant or obscure nations rose to be great powers, as did Prussia and Russia during the eighteenth century. As a consequence of the French Revolution, France, in one decade, rose from relative weakness to be the dominant power on the continent. The appearance, in 1870, of two new great powers, Germany and Italy, completely unbalanced the balance of power that had been so neatly arranged and so nicely balanced in 1815 by the Congress of Vienna. A static Europe, the premise of the balance of power, paralyzed political inventiveness, thereby precluding the creation of a new political order to meet the new situation after 1870. What did appear was a new balance of power based on two military coalitions, the Triple Alliance, composed of Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Italy, and the Dual Alliance, composed of France and Russia. As the pace of political and economic changes quickened after 1870 the new equilibrium was soon upset. The race for colonies, due to the expansion of Europe in Asia and in Africa, and the growth of national movements among the subject peoples in central and eastern Europe combined to undermine the *status quo*. What gave the illusion of tranquillity was the armed peace, maintained by the two coalitions. In reality it was a preparation for the First World War.

In the second place, the balance of power never, at any time, truly balanced. No sooner was it established than one coalition sought to get the edge on its rival in order to win in the struggle for power that was always ominously impending, a situation that led to armament races, rivalries, jealousies, and dangerous intrigues. This situation was well illustrated by the diplomatic development after 1870. The Triple Alliance sought to get the edge on the Triple Entente by drawing within its orbit small satellite power, such as Bulgaria and Turkey. And the Entente sought to get the edge on the Alliance by weaning Italy from her allegiance to her allies. Fear of the rapid progress of German naval power drove England to the side of the Dual Alliance, which then became the Triple Entente. Both sides committed to the maintenance of the *status quo*, were driven by forces beyond their

control to pursue policies that undermined it. The state of tension that ensued from this situation resulted in a succession of crises, each more serious than its predecessor. Finally came the Serbian crisis of July, 1914, and the tension broke—in a world war.

The First World War broke out in the familiar setting of the balance of power: a threat of European domination by the Germany of Kaiser Wilhelm II was met by a European coalition, headed by England. As the war progressed an element entered the situation that was startlingly unfamiliar, namely, the active participation of America. The presence of American armies in a coalition that fought on the continent against the disturber of the balance of power was an anomaly, and it was recognized as such. It was made sharply clear by President Woodrow Wilson that the purpose of America's participation was not to restore but to abolish this fateful principle of European relations. His unflagging persistence to make the Covenant of the League of Nations an integral part of the treaty of Versailles can be understood only in the light of his repudiation of the balance of power.

A word must be said to explain England's prominence in the many combinations to maintain the balance of power. A legend has arisen that the principle was a diabolical invention of England to keep Europe divided and in a constant state of turmoil in order to divert attention from her aggressive designs in other parts of the world. The truth is that England invoked the balance of power whenever it suited her interests, just like every other nation in Europe. However, she had a special reason for fearing the domination of the continent by a would-be dictator. Nature had given England a great natural advantage in that she was an island, which considerably safeguarded her from invasion. Neither Marx's theory of "economic determinism" nor Pascal's theory of the "length of Cleopatra's nose" have been as influential in determining the course of world history as the few miles of water that is the strait of Dover and the mouth of the Scheldt river. As early as the seventeenth century England realized, very clearly and very keenly, that in order to maintain the advantage of her geographical position, no great power, ambitious to dominate Europe, should be in control of the strip of coast on the Continent, nearest to her shores. Once in hostile hands it could become a springboard for the invasion of England. She was always on the alert and ready to do everything in her power to prevent what is now called Belgium from falling into hostile hands. That was why England was the leading spirit in the coalitions that warred against Louis XIV, Napoleon, and the Kaiser.

On the other hand, no conqueror of the continent could rest secure as long as England remained unconquered. Her power lay primarily in her great fleet that could nullify even the greatest land victories

of an enemy by blockading Europe. Fear of economic ruin through a blockade would be a constant stimulus to the conquered peoples to revolt against the conqueror. No one understood the sea power of England better than did Napoleon whose hatred for "perfidious Albion" grew as his victories on land became more numerous and more overwhelming without bringing him the peace so necessary to consolidate his power. The "sun which rose" at Austerlitz began setting as the implications of Trafalgar became clear to the nations on the Continent.

It was the League of Nations, of glowing but unhappy memory, that aimed to substitute for the balance of power a world organization with authority to control and to regulate international relations. The Covenant provided for the abolition of secret diplomacy, for the establishment of permanent judicial machinery to settle disputes between nations, for joint action against an aggressor, and, most important, for peaceful methods to change the *status quo*. It is notorious that the League failed to accomplish these great purposes, and those who are always looking for someone to blame always find someone. America was responsible for the failure, say some, because she refused to join the League. France was responsible, say others, because she used the League as an instrument to bolster up her national interests. England was responsible, say still others, because she was weak-kneed in her support of the League. In my opinion the primal cause of the League's failure was that its very organization contained a fatal contradiction, in that it was a *world* organization consisting of *independent* nations. The League's members continued to be what they always had been, national, sovereign states, and even more national and more sovereign than ever before. There wasn't a member state so small or so large that was not ready to defy the League whenever the latter crossed its national purposes. In defiance of the League, Paraguay made war against Bolivia. In defiance of the League, Poland flouted the National Minorities treaty that she had signed. In defiance of the League,

Japan refused to restore Manchuria to China. The weakness of a world organization, composed of national, sovereign states, soon became evident. Before long the balance of power principle reappeared with all its ancient evils: secret diplomacy, competitive armaments, international intrigue, and rival coalitions. France allied herself with Poland and with the states composing the Little Entente. Germany and Italy formed the Axis. As in the past England, at first hesitated, then finally joined France. Confronted with the revival of the balance of power the jerry-built League of Nations promptly collapsed. As in so many instances in the past the path of the balance of power led straight to war, this time, to the greatest war in all history, the Second World War.

Two world wars within the brief span of one generation ought to be sufficient to dispel all doubts as to the evils inflicted on mankind by the balance of power. Nevertheless belief in this discredited principle continues to be as persistent as it is widespread. Talk about stubborn facts! They are as "babes in the wood" compared with stubborn theories. Because of some obscure kink in human psychology a discredited old idea seems harder to kill than a new idea that promises a better future for mankind.

The balance of power must go if the future peace of the world is to be established on a firm foundation. A new world organization must arise in which the interdependence, not the independence, of nations will be the guiding principle. No longer should a nation exercise the sovereign right of waging war, a right which some day will be regarded as preposterous and as anti-social as today we regard the "right" of the feudal baron in the Middle Ages to wage private war. Only a world organization, with authority to maintain peace between nations, could launch against an aggressor the irresistible power of a world military force. The present generation would indeed show poverty in the art of political invention if it could not devise a better system of international relations than the existing system of "international anarchy."

An Experiment in the Study of Democracy

MARGARETA FAISSSLER

Roland Park Country School, Baltimore, Maryland

In the last year we have all redoubled our efforts to acquaint our pupils with the glory of the American past and the greatness of American ideals. Un-

fortunately much of this effort has been so dominated by emotion and so devoid of content that it has been almost valueless, or even destructive of its own ends.

To study American democracy more effectively and to place it in its historical perspective, the Roland Park Country School in Baltimore has tried an experiment using the materials of the regular curriculum to illuminate the origins, development, and present problems of democracy.

Instead of interfering with the usual course of study, this plan has given new meaning and direction especially to history courses. The purpose of the project was to pool all material in the curriculum related to American democracy and its origins. In a forty-minute assembly meeting each class from the seventh grade through the twelfth presented to the rest of the school all its findings with regard to democracy. The first of these assemblies was held in early November and the last in May. The project maintained the interest of the pupils throughout the year and at the same time satisfied both parents and teachers. A detailed description of it may be helpful to other departments of social studies.

The most remote antecedent of our democracy to which serious attention was paid was Athenian government at the time of Pericles. It was the special responsibility of the ninth graders in their required ancient history course to investigate that subject. To make clear the method by which the whole experiment was developed, the working out of this particular assembly program will be described in detail.

No change was made in the ancient history course until the time came to study Greece. Then for two weeks the pupils read and discussed Greek history to the end of the Peloponnesian Wars, and for another week the teacher read excerpts from Herodotus and Plato to illustrate Greek attitudes and ideals. The class made a general outline of the material to be used and in the usual time allowed for home work each girl investigated and wrote up the part assigned to her. Each author completed a first draft of her part, read it to the rest of the group for criticism, made the necessary changes, and then read further in Greek history until the rest of the class had finished their tasks.

The writing of this and the other programs was thus done by the pupils themselves with only such additions and corrections from the teacher as were necessary to give the material sufficient clarity and coherence for a public performance. After a few days of rehearsal the other classes were invited to listen to the program. The audience was not unprepared to understand the material because the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth graders had already studied ancient history and a brief background talk was given to the seventh and eighth graders. No costumes were used in any of these programs, and usually the actors read, instead of memorizing their parts. Detailed mimeographed programs were furnished the audi-

ence in order to prevent any confusion as to the parts taken by the various actors.

The program began with a keynote speech of which the following is a condensed version:

There you are, looking at your programs and probably wondering what on earth Athenian democracy in 500 B.C. has to do with us, living in 1942 A.D. The object of my talk is to tell you the answer to this very question. "Democracy" is derived from the Greek words *demos*, meaning the people, and *kratos*, meaning power. So you see that democracy—the very word—starts in Greece. There are several points which I want to bring out. Number one: the writers of our Constitution all knew the works of the great Greek philosophers, Plato and Aristotle. They studied ancient history carefully and knew the facts that we are going to tell you about today. I cannot tell specifically what facts of Greek history influenced them, but it is certain that they were influenced by Greek ideas. The second point is that it is important to study other governments to broaden our view, and perhaps to get some ideas from them for ourselves. But most important, it is valuable to compare other governments with ours. To study democracy in Athens makes democracy here clearer because you notice the differences and likenesses between the two.

This speech was followed by a round table discussion on the origin and nature of Athenian democracy, participated in by a chairman and eight other members of the class. Their discussion is quoted in full:

Chairman: (To the audience) We hope to show three things: how it happened for the first time in history that a democracy was established in Athens, what that democracy was like, and finally how there were some weaknesses in it. (To the participants) Now I am going to ask all of you how democracy started in Athens.

First girl: I think we should go back to the very beginning of Greek history when the Greeks were coming into the country. At that time they were organized in tribes with a chieftain for each. By conquering each other the original tribes were finally united into a few city states. They changed their old chiefs to kings, but the kings were still judges, priests, and leaders of the troops. There was an assembly of arm-bearing men which could sometimes make its opinions known. Later the nobles became very powerful and finally overthrew the kings.

Chairman: So it seems that the Greeks had no democracy at first.

Second girl: I should like to point out that the sec-

ond important form of government was even less democratic. It was the government of the age of nobles. The nobles were pirates. They raided ships and plundered towns all along the coast of Greece. With their wealth they could buy armor and weapons, something which no other class of people could afford. These nobles became so powerful and so important that they were in reality the rulers of that period. The king became merely a figurehead.

Chairman: The next period is the age of tyrants—about 650 to 550 B.C., I should think.

Third girl: Another great change took place in Greek life about 650 B.C. All goods became more plentiful and cheaper. Other classes besides the nobles could afford armor. The leader of a faction among the nobles often placed himself at the head of a group of dissatisfied people. Both the peasants and the new commercial class with their armor rallied around such a leader. Thus supported he was able to overcome and expel his rivals among the nobles and to gain undisputed control of the state. In this way he became a sort of king. The Greeks called such a man a tyrant. In spite of public opinion these tyrants were the first champions of democracy because they represented at least a large group of common people.

Chairman: It was just at the end of the age of tyrants that Athens set up a really democratic government. Let us now turn to our second point and describe Athenian democracy as it was established at the end of the sixth century. How democratic was it anyway?

Fourth girl: I think we should show how large a part the ordinary citizen had in making the laws. Any citizen, once, twice in his lifetime might sit in the council of five hundred. This body suggested the laws. It consisted of fifty men from each of the ten tribes of Athens, all chosen by lot. The laws were passed by the assembly of all Athenian citizens over the age of eighteen.

Fifth girl: The ordinary citizen also had a share in carrying out the laws.

Chairman: Can you explain how?

Fifth girl: In Athens in the fifth century B.C. there were two groups of people who took care of carrying out the laws: the council of five hundred and the ten generals. The members of the council from each tribe ruled for a tenth of a year and supervised the conduct of the government. It was impossible to get fifty men together every day, however, so most of the work of carrying out the laws fell to the ten generals, one elected from each of the tribes.

Chairman: What did the ordinary citizen have to do

with enforcing the laws?

Sixth girl: There were juries of five hundred and one members each. Actually these juries were nothing more than a group of temporary judges deciding cases brought before them. Anyone who wished to appear on one of the juries could place his name on the list from which a certain number from each tribe were selected by lot.

Chairman: From what all of you have said, I believe that the Greeks had more democracy than the American people today.

Seventh girl: Yes, Greek democracy was very good as far as it went, but it had its limitations.

Chairman: Limitations?

Seventh girl: Yes. The greatest part of the Athenian population could not take any part in the government at all. A very great number of Attica's population were slaves. They were excluded from any voice in the government. Only men from eighteen years upward, whose parents were free Athenians, could go to the assembly or be chosen for the council. This law, of course, excluded women and children. More important, metics, or foreigners, were also prevented from taking part in the government. There was another way in which Athens was not democratic. She did not give her empire any freedom or any part in the government. So you can see that the democracy of Attica was restricted to a few people only.

Eighth girl: In this connection I should like to point out that Athenian democracy had certain other weaknesses.

Chairman: Can you give us some examples?

Eighth girl: Yes. Take the battle of Arginusae. The Athenians were victorious over the Spartans there, but many lives were lost as the result of a dreadful storm. At home the politicians took up the matter and brought the ten generals who had been in charge of the expedition to trial. It is probably true that the generals had been careless and that people had died as a result, but the people were swayed by their emotions to try the generals in a group instead of one at a time as the law demanded. I could point out a dozen examples of the same sort where the people judged rashly and unwisely.

Chairman: (To the round table) I am afraid our time is getting short and that we shall have to stop our discussion. (To the audience) We have tried to show you that the Athenians had a very different democracy from ours. In America it would be impossible for us to adopt their form of government. Theirs was a government suited to a small republic just forty miles wide. Citizens who take so much part in the govern-

ment as they did would have time for little else. Thus slavery would be necessary as it was in Athens. Athenian democracy is important, however, as the first experiment of its kind in the world.

When the round table discussion was ended, other members of the class tried to show how the love of country served to synthesize all activities of Greek life. Three girls dramatized a story from Herodotus (Herodotus, *History*, Book I, 26-32) giving an account of Solon's conversation with Croesus in which Solon makes clear how he values service to the gods and the state above great wealth. A narrator explained the reason for including the dialogue in the program, one pupil took the part of Solon, and another the part of Croesus. Then several girls gave short talks indicating how the Greeks employed their architecture, their theater, their games for the service of Athens, and for the education of all free Athenians.

The last third of this first assembly period was used for a dramatization of Plato's dialogues relating to the trial and death of Socrates. To illustrate the methods of Socrates the first part of the *Euthyphron* dialogue was presented in abbreviated form. The audience was much amused by that conversation. A narrator then told the story of the trial of Socrates and another girl recited excerpts from the *Apology*, asking the audience to imagine themselves members of the jury of Athenian citizens who had just condemned Socrates. The impression made by this recitation was surprisingly great, partly no doubt because the girl who said the lines spoke them well, but also because much of Socrates' argument is pertinent today. Finally two girls read that part of the *Crito* dialogue in which Socrates holds his imaginary conversation with the laws of Athens. The actors themselves cut the dialogues and put them into the form of little plays.

The second assembly program was given by the eleventh grade. Some of them have a course in European history since 1648, but most of them have no history except for what they learn in connection with their reading of Cicero. The two groups gave an imaginary radio broadcast. An announcer explained how much American democracy owes to earlier political theorists and earlier experiments in government. Members of the Latin class explained some of Cicero's political theories and read excerpts from his writings to illustrate the timeliness of Cicero's ideas on freedom.

The group studying modern European history then had a round table discussion of the influence of Locke and of the *philosophie* movement in France on the Declaration of Independence and the American Constitution. The actors pretended to represent a somewhat amplified University of Chicago radio round table, and the audience was much amused

by the fiction. A member of the twelfth grade government class was a guest of the group, in the guise of the governor of Maryland. The discussion is quoted in part only.

Chairman: (To the audience) The University of Chicago Round Table is discussing today certain French and English thinkers and their influence on government. We welcome the distinguished historian and statesman, the present governor of Maryland, as our guest. (To the participants) I suppose, gentlemen, that the first question to be asked is why you, distinguished authorities as you are on seventeenth and eighteenth century thought in France and England, should be asked to discuss American democracy.

First professor: Is it not because of the tremendous influence which the French and English had on American institutions?

Second professor: American democracy is in many ways an illustration of the theories and writings of men like Locke, Rousseau, and Voltaire.

Chairman: Perhaps we should begin our discussion with the Englishman, John Locke.

Third professor: He thought that sometime in the past people had turned over their rights to the government. It was in this way that governments came to have the right to make people obey them.

Fourth professor: But that theory isn't logical. Governments developed by a gradual process—by just—

Third professor: I know, Doctor, I realize that the theory is not now accepted, but Locke believed in it just the same. He thought that governments which no longer protected the rights of the people broke their original contracts with the people. The people were then no longer bound by their side of the contract. They had a right to revolt and destroy such governments.

Fifth professor: Indeed Locke justified the revolution of 1688 in England in that way.

Chairman: I suppose the distinguished guest of today's University of Chicago Round Table is thinking that the Americans who wrote the Declaration of Independence must have read Locke.

Governor: Indeed they did read him.

Sixth professor: Mr. Chairman, in my opinion Locke's ideas on toleration were even more important than his ideas on government.

Chairman: What were his ideas?

Sixth professor: In that day when there was no religious toleration in England or much of it anywhere else, Locke published letters which actually proposed that anyone in England be permitted to worship as he pleased.

Chairman: It looks as if Locke suggested to the

Americans religious toleration and the right of revolution. It is probably time, however, for the University of Chicago Round Table to turn its attention to the French thinkers of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries.

Seventh professor: Then I think that we should by all means begin with Montesquieu, who was certainly the most important to the Americans.

Eighth professor: He was a great admirer of the English form of government, was he not?

Ninth professor: Yes, he had a theory about the separation of powers in government.

Tenth professor: In that way he thought that no one person or group of persons in the government would be too powerful.

Eleventh professor: This separation of powers is, of course, one of the bases of our present system in America.

Seventh professor: Along with Montesquieu we should, I think, put Voltaire, who was the most important champion of freedom of religion.

Tenth professor: Voltaire spent his last years trying to free a French Huguenot family accused of killing their son who, in reality, had committed suicide. The rumor was that Jean Calas had murdered his son to keep him from turning Catholic. The Calas lands were confiscated and the daughters and son were forced to embrace monastic life. Jean himself was broken on the wheel.

Sixth professor: Finally Voltaire proved the Calas family innocent.

Fourth professor: It is interesting to notice that Voltaire, too, went to England and admired the English system.

Third professor: Should we not also discuss Rousseau, the crazy vagabond?

Second professor: His ideas were very radical and were never put into real practice, although they did help to change the way of thinking of many people.

First professor: Rousseau believed that natural man was good and that government and civilization made man evil. Therefore, he said, all society should return to a state of nature.

Fifth professor: He also preached against inequality of rank and privilege and inequality in the distribution of wealth. Rousseau wrote about the social contract as did Locke. He urged men to change their ideas about the right of governments to use force.

Sixth professor: He also endeavored to base all government on the consent of the governed.

Chairman: Gentlemen, our purpose was to determine what ideas of these French and English thinkers were transported to America. Perhaps we should draw our discussion to its conclusion. The Uni-

versity of Chicago Round Table is particularly fortunate today in the presence of an eminent authority on the American Constitution, the Governor of Maryland. (To the governor) Governor ———, you have heard our discussion. Can you tell us whether any of these ideas of our French and English friends have been made a part of the American government?

Governor: Gentlemen: I deem it a great honor that I have been included in the discussion today—a discussion which has interested me greatly. It is quite astounding to realize how many of the ideas upheld by these great men are inscribed in our governmental documents. You mentioned, I believe, Rousseau of France—a brilliant man—who, as you said, supported the belief that all men are created equal. I'm sure that our audience is well aware of the fact that this theory is included in our Declaration of Independence in the words, "We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal." You also mentioned the fact that the Englishman, John Locke, advocated the inalienable rights of people: their right to revolt, to freedom of religion, etc. I need only recall to your minds, gentlemen, that our Declaration of Independence says that the people have every right to rebel against any government which threatens the safety of life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. Locke and Voltaire both realized the necessity for religious tolerance as did our forefathers, who included in our Constitution the following statement: "Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion or prohibiting the free exercise thereof." Montesquieu of France supported the idea of the separation of powers, which is carried out in our own government in our system of checks and balances. Hamilton, Jay, and Madison in their publication, *The Federalist*, which appeared just after the writing of the Constitution, referred to Montesquieu by name and actually quoted from him in support of their argument. An amusing situation arose at this time, because both the Federalists and their opponents were quoting from Montesquieu, each having their own interpretation. However the Federalists won the argument since they had the sounder basis for their assumptions. I only wish that the time would allow me to expound this subject further, but in concluding let me say that as a governor and as a student of American history, I put all my weight behind the conclusions that these men held true.

Chairman: Thank you, Governor ———, for your excellent summary. I'm afraid that our time is

up, so I'll turn this program over to our announcer.

The third assembly program was the work of the tenth grade class in English history. It represented Lord Halifax and Secretary Hull meeting at a Washington reception and falling into conversation about the relationship between English and American democracy. As they talked they sat down on the top step of the stairway leading to the stage. After each part of their discussion the curtains on the stage opened and a brief dialogue or skit was presented to illustrate their argument. Then the curtains closed again and the two statesmen continued their conversation. What follows is a sampling from this program.

(The curtain opens and Secretary Hull enters the bare stage, pretending to be looking for his coat after a Washington party.)

Hull: Why I am always roped into these receptions I don't know. Where did I put my coat? The sooner I get out of this madhouse the better. (Enter Lord Halifax, smiling broadly.) Well, Your Lordship seems to be enjoying a private joke. One does not get much amusement these days.

Halifax: Oh, Secretary Hull! Had your fill of this reception too? Yes, I was laughing at a conversation I happened to overhear between two women just now.

Hull: Really?

Halifax: Yes, they were expressing their profound views of the world's sad state of affairs. They started with MacArthur in Australia and ended with democracy, which they were sure Washington had invented. You know that it is a funny thing, such intense loyalty to one's form of government. Why I am sure that if I had overheard that conversation in London, the ladies would have been just as sure that Magna Carta had started democracy.

Hull: You know, I am very much interested in that sort of thing and have spent many hours pondering over our debt to England trying to sum up for myself just what we owe to you in the way of democracy.

Halifax: It is, of course, a difficult thing to study. Take Magna Carta for instance—that is a document which has grown in importance through the centuries as a symbol of freedom.

Hull: Then the judicial system is much the same in both countries and there is your Parliament and our Congress. Our judicial system began with the jury trial way back in the time of Henry II, I believe.

Halifax: Here, let's not interrupt this interesting conversation. Let's step into the library here and talk more comfortably. (They sat themselves on

the top step of the stairway leading from the floor of the auditorium to the stage and the curtains close.)

Hull: Perhaps we might talk a little more about the English origin of the jury system back there in the time of Henry II. I am not as well informed on that subject as I should be.

(The curtains open again on the stage. Two chairs are set near each other. The program informs the audience that the stage represents the interior of an English noble home in the time of Henry II. Hull and Halifax watch in silence the little play which follows. Enter Sir Roland Mandeville and Sir Gilbert du Bois.)

Gilbert: You certainly had a wonderful time on your journey to Rome, Roland.

Roland: Yes, Bert, I enjoyed it very much. But before you say another thing, tell me what Sir Brian de Quincy is doing here. When I left he had some governmental position in London.

Gilbert: He is part of the wonderful new law system which King Henry has established. He is a circuit justice.

Roland: But circuit justices are not new. Did not William the Conqueror first have them?

Gilbert: Yes, except that now their visits are more frequent and regular, and their duties have been more clearly defined and enlarged upon.

Roland: Just what do they do when they arrive?

Gilbert: First they will summon certain men who will comprise the grand jury. Under oath these men will name every crime committed in the region since their last visit and indict all persons believed guilty, trying to find a suspect for every crime.

Roland: That sounds like a good system.

Gilbert: Do you remember when Sir Robert de Vere's brother-in-law was killed?

Roland: Yes, I believe I do. Did they not think that the younger brother killed the elder brother in order to inherit the estate?

Gilbert: Yes, that's right.

Roland: And because it was in the family and the mother favored the younger son, they winked at the matter.

Gilbert: Under the new law they could not do so. Some member of the grand jury would acknowledge the crime and indict the younger brother.

Roland: And I suppose the theft of my horse and some of my belongings and the wounding of one of my retainers by a band of highwaymen would also be reported?

Gilbert: By all means. Did that happen in this hundred?

Roland: Yes it did—just a week ago.

Gilbert: Then I will report it, for I am serving on the grand jury this year.

Roland: Are you? Tell me, how do they choose the jurymen?

Gilbert: A certain number of legal men are chosen from each hundred and each manor as stated in the law.

Roland: I see. To return to the case of Sir Robert's brother-in-law, what happens after the younger brother is indicted?

Gilbert: Since it is a criminal case, the brother would be tried by ordeal by water. As before you left England, if he sank he would be innocent and if he floated he would be guilty.

Roland: What happens if the brother has fled?

Gilbert: Then the sheriff has full power to do anything necessary to catch him.

Roland: You said awhile back something about "since it is a criminal case."

Gilbert: If it were a land case, the brother would be tried differently. Rear vassals are able to buy writs from the king giving them permission to have the case tried in the king's court.

Roland: Then when Sir John of Montgomery and Sir Roger d'Aunay quarreled over the boundaries of their manors, the dispute would have been referred to a jury.

Gilbert: Exactly.

Roland: And Sir Roger would have bought a writ enabling him to have the case tried in the king's court and perhaps he would not have lost some of his rightful land to Sir John as he did. They battled over the issue in the lists, you know, and Sir Roger lost.

Gilbert: Right.

Roland: But what is the advantage of having the case tried in the king's court?

Gilbert: It is then tried by a body of twelve men under oath to state the facts truthfully and to give a just verdict. These are known as the petty jury.

Roland: Petty, I suppose, comes from the French "petit."

Gilbert: Yes, it is called petty because it is smaller than the grand jury. I hope that some day the petty jury system will apply to criminal cases, too, for it is much fairer.

Roland: I can understand that, for a man does not have to rely on his physical ability, and furthermore, as the saying goes, "two heads are better than one." Twelve jurymen are better than one or two justices.

Gilbert: Yes, that's so. Sir Roger d'Aunay could easily have won his case before a jury, but instead he suffered because of his dislike and inability for jousting.

(Curtain)

Halifax: That explains the jury system in Henry II's time. To continue our discussion, it seems to me that you have also borrowed much of our legislative system.

Hull: Yes, our Congress controls the law-making and the taxation just as your Parliament does.

Halifax: You remember, however, that Parliament has attained its rights and privileges only through a long struggle. In the time of James I, for instance, James claimed that Parliament should not meddle in foreign affairs and was there only to give him money. Nevertheless sooner or later all kings found that Parliament was indispensable because if it was dissolved, the monarch would be without a sufficient source of money.

Hull: One of your later kings tried to *unmake* laws passed by Parliament, I believe.

Halifax: That's right, Mr. Secretary. In the seventeenth century there was great intolerance of religious differences. Parliament, Anglican at the time, even went so far as to pass a law inflicting heavy penalties on all Catholics and Puritans. Charles II had definite Catholic leanings. He wished to lift the heavy penalties from Catholics. Since he could not persuade Parliament to change the law, he tried to set it aside. He claimed that the king had power to set aside any law passed by Parliament. He issued the Declaration of Indulgence saying that the laws could not be enforced against Catholics and Puritans.

Hull: It was certainly fortunate for us that Charles was unsuccessful in his effort. Think what it would mean to us today if the laws passed by Congress and Parliament were completely subject to the approval or disapproval of the president or king.

(Curtain opens showing Sir Andrew and Sir Roger, two Roman Catholics, in conversation. Time: reign of Charles II.)

Sir Andrew: Yes, sir, it is indeed unfortunate for us Catholics that His Majesty was unable to put this Declaration of Indulgence into effect, setting aside the penal laws against us. I fear I will not be able to stand much more of Parliament's intolerant attitude toward us.

Sir Roger: You say it is unfortunate? Aye, It would like as well as you to have the freedom which these Anglicans enjoy; but then, think, sir, if Charles were able to set this act aside, could he not do so to any other, and then would we not have less freedom than we now have?

Sir Andrew: I fail to see your point, sir.

Sir Roger: 'Tis like this: this penal law against Catholics and Puritans was passed perfectly

legally by Parliament. Now His Majesty wishes to set it aside, through this Declaration of Indulgence, *without* the consent of Parliament.

Sir Andrew: That would be fine for us, it seems to me.

Sir Roger: Aye, that much of it is. But then, if the king could do that, could he not do the same to any law enacted by Parliament which he did not like? The laws would be His Majesty's laws. If he liked none of them, England would be a lawless land. It would be far worse than the despotic reign of Charles I—and how would you like that? As for me, I prefer to do without the freedom these Anglicans enjoy rather than to give up Parliament's control of the laws.

Sir Andrew: Now that I pause to think, I agree with you. Some day Parliament will be more tolerant toward our religion, perhaps, but it is not certain that a king with the power of repealing any law would refrain from using that power to the disadvantage of the whole nation.

(Curtain)

Halifax: That is one example of a time when the king tried to set aside a law passed by Parliament.

Hull: We seem to have shown, to our mutual satisfaction, that we Americans have gone deeply in debt to England for our courts and our Congress.

Halifax: You won't forget that Englishmen taught Americans that it is important to limit the power of the head of the government.

Hull: That subject will take us back to Magna Carta, I suppose.

Halifax: Many people mistakenly think that Magna Carta is important because it guarantees trial by jury. Actually juries were just beginning to be used at that time.

Hull: It is a wonderful document, just the same, because it marks an early time when a band of nobles successfully resisted the tyranny of a king. I doubt whether many of us would like to live under it now, however, for it is primarily concerned with the feudal duties of vassals and lords.

Halifax: Its greatest value is that it is a symbol of all of our liberties.

Hull: A symbol as important to Americans as to Englishmen.

Halifax: When we consider Magna Carta, perhaps we ought to think of the Petition of Right at the same time. Magna Carta may be chiefly a symbol today, but the Petition of Right is still a vital part of the English government.

Hull: I am afraid that I am a bit rusty on the circumstances which gave rise to the bill.

Halifax: Charles I, back in 1625, was trying to run a war without asking Parliament for money, so

he sent soldiers to live with the people, forced loans, used martial law, and thrust people into jail without trial. Parliament was strong enough to force Charles to agree, in the Petition of Right, not to do these things any more.

(Curtain opens showing a mother and her daughter Florence in an English cottage in 1628.)

Florence: What will we do, what will we do, Mother? There is no more room in this house. There are five children now in this tiny cottage.

Mother: But Florence, you know that there is nothing we can do about it. Almost every family that has an income is in the same predicament we are in.

Florence: If King Charles does what he says he's going to do, I think we probably will both have to sleep in with the children. Imagine—two or three soldiers having the run of our own home—our own home. I never thought anything like this would happen to us even if the king wanted to make a war.

Mother: Since your father's death I've always been able to get money enough together somehow or other to feed you and the younger ones, but two soldiers besides is going to be a problem. And I suppose they will need a room all of their own.

Florence: Mother, I have it! Let's complain to our member of Parliament. Maybe he could help us. If he only could!

Mother: Others have done it, but haven't got very far.

Florence: But Mother, it won't hurt anything or anybody if we try for ourselves. Somehow I feel that we shall be saved from the horrible means by which we are being deprived of our homes.

(Curtain)

Hull: That shows you the hardships which billeting can cause.

(Curtain opens to show a banker and a merchant meeting on an English street, 1628)

Banker: I have only a minute. We'll have to get right to the point. You mentioned something to me about one of your ships.

Merchant: Yes, a very sad thing has happened. The *Eagle*, the largest merchant vessel that I have, was sunk in a violent storm off Dover with all her cargo from the East.

Banker: That is too bad, but what is it you wanted to ask me?

Merchant: King Charles has demanded that other loan with the excuse of fighting on the continent.

Banker: Oh well, now I see.

Merchant: Do you think you could arrange to loan

me about two hundred pounds? These loans Charles has forced us to give are outrageous. Either we pay or we are thrown into prison.

Banker: I can sympathize entirely with you. I think that the loan can be arranged. You would be surprised at the number of people who have come to our house to get loans in the past week. Of course business is picking up for us, but I think the king is making a terrible mistake.

Merchant: You know, I think there ought to be something done about it. What do you think I could do myself?

Banker: You could speak to one of the members of Parliament who is at home right now.

Merchant: That sounds reasonable. I think I will have a talk with him. I'll stop at your house tomorrow to get the money.

Banker: Oh, I'm late. I'll have to be going. Make that about midday if you can.

(Curtain)

Halifax: And that shows what difficulties are caused by forced loans.

(Curtain opens to show a man sitting on a bench in an English village in 1628. A soldier enters.)

Soldier: Hello, there. You're just the person I'm looking for.

Man: How so?

Soldier: You are going in the army right now. King Charles has ordered me and the other recruiting soldiers to round you all up and get you into the army as soon as possible.

Man: I won't do it. I don't see any reason why you should make me join the army. I shall appeal to the authorities if you lay a hand on me.

Soldier: You overlook the fact that there is martial law in this town today. Or maybe you weren't here when the soldiers arrived this morning, eh?

Man: Then I suppose I have no choice, but before I go will you let me see a friend? In fact he is a member of Parliament and has just got to town. I'm going to speak to him about this martial law.

Soldier: Oh no. Now that I have you, you're not going to get out of my sight. I'll go right along with you to see this so-called friend.

Man: You certainly are persistent. But no matter. Let's hurry. He might leave before I have a chance to speak to him.

(Curtain)

Hull: And that proves to us why martial law can be dangerous to our liberties.

(Curtain opens showing the member of Parliament and his clerk.)

M.P.: It is certainly unusual that all the complaints that have been brought before me this month are

so closely related to the new petition that Parliament is forcing the king to sign. I think they are calling it the Petition of Right.

Clerk: Since your return from Parliament there have been many people here. Don't you think that you should tell them something about the new law? It would relieve them and there wouldn't be any trouble with them if they got the idea that something is being done about their complaints.

M.P.: That certainly isn't a bad idea.

Clerk: Good, good, that is just what I wanted to hear. These people are waiting just outside. I anticipated this. Not bad, if you don't mind my saying so myself. One of the complainers arrived here with a recruiting officer hot on his heels. The other two have to do with other points in the petition. I'll get them in now. (Enter Florence and her mother, the merchant, the man and the recruiting officer.)

M.P.: I've had you brought before me for one specific reason. I'll be brief and to the point. I understand all of you have made some complaint or other to my clerk. Whether you know it or not they are all related to one another. Let me make myself clear. I think you are all acquainted with the method by which our king has been ruling England. Now Parliament is forcing the king to sign a petition declaring that enforced billeting of soldiers, trial by martial law, loans or taxes not imposed by Parliament, and imprisonment without specific charge, are illegal. I can see by your faces that you are very much relieved. I hope that you will be happy under the new law. And now good day.

(Curtain)

Hull: The Constitution of the United States quotes directly from the Petition of Right. But this conversation could go on forever. American democracy certainly owes much to English struggles for liberty.

Halifax: This has been a most illuminating discussion—one of my pleasantest evenings in America. I must leave now, however. Can my chauffeur not take you somewhere and we can continue the conversation in the car?

Hull: Thank you. That would be very convenient.

(They go out)

A more learned audience would have recognized, of course, that the coincidence in the group of scenes concerning the Petition of Right was improbable. High school textbooks do not offer enough detail to show the exact course of events between 1626 and 1628, however, and the scenes were allowed to remain as their tenth grade author wrote them.

The other three assembly programs dealt with the

development of democracy in America. The seventh graders made a special study of the roots of democracy in colonial America. They gave a series of brief talks on town meetings, religious toleration, the transfer of the rights and immunities of Englishmen to America, and the like. One girl wrote a skit about Roger Williams to illustrate religious toleration. Another wrote a conversation between herself and representatives of the various racial groups who came to the colonies, showing that America was a melting pot from the very beginning. A particularly talented pupil made a sprightly little play from the account of the first meeting of the Virginia House of Burgesses. (A. B. Hart, ed., *American History Told by Contemporaries*.) It is quoted in full.

(Scene: The choir of the church in Jamestown, July 30, 1619. Enter Governor Sir George Yeardley, Mr. Bucke, the minister, John Twine, the clerk, the secretary and speaker, and the elected members of the house.)

Captain Powell (to Captain Lowne): 'Tis a pity that our Speaker has been so ill and sickly that he even now totters.

Captain Lowne: Aye, 'tis indeed a pity. The Governor hath therefore decreed that he shall speak but briefly and remain seated during such speeches as he must give.

Governor Yeardley: Twine, do you inscribe in your records each happening that takes place in this meeting, giving also the names of those present, that in later times we may look to your writings for reference.

Twine: So shall I, sir.

Governor: Mr. Bucke, so that the Lord God may guide our deliberations with His Almighty influence, will you not offer up a prayer to Him, and entreat Him to aid us in our decisions?

Mr. Bucke (taking his place at the altar): Gentlemen, let us pray. (They kneel before the altar.) O Heavenly Father, who dost lead us in Thy ways, we beseech Thee, in Thy divine mercy, to guide us in this Assembly, to inspire us with righteous deliberations, that we may decide wisely and for the good of this colony. Grant this, O merciful God, for the sake of thy divine Son, Jesus Christ, our Lord. Amen.

All: Amen. (They rise.)

Governor: Gentlemen, will you be seated. (To the speaker) Will you now call the roll?

Speaker: Governor, Sir George Yeardley.

Governor: Present.

Speaker: Captain Lowne.

Lowe: Here.

Speaker: Ensign Rossingham.

Rossingham: Present.

Speaker: Mr. Pierse.

Pierse: Present.

Speaker: Mr. Twine.

Twine: Here.

Speaker: Captain Warde.

Warde: Present.

Speaker: Mr. Boys.

Boys: Here.

Governor: Do ye all utterly testify and declare in your consciences that the King's Highness is the only supreme governor of this realm and of all his Highness' dominions and countries, as well as in all spiritual things or causes, as in temporal; and that no foreign prince, person, or state has or ought to have, any power or authority ecclesiastical or spiritual, within this realm; and therefore, do ye utterly renounce and forsake all foreign powers, superiorities and authorities, and promise that from henceforth ye shall bear faith and true allegiance to the King's Highness, his heirs or successors, so help ye God, by the contents of the Book?

All: We do solemnly swear unto this oath, and declare that we will adhere to it. (They all sit.)

Speaker: Gentlemen, we are met here in this assembly as a body of lawmakers and officials, to plan for the welfare of this colony, and to make and pass its laws with discretion and wisdom. As is known to ye all, this assembly is made up of representatives of our different towns, plantations, and hundreds. Sir George Yeardley, our governor, shall, we trust, lead our meeting well and counsel us with the aid of God. Today our mission is to deliberate upon our laws, receive suggestions for our laws, and also to sentence justly these in this colony against whom some complaints are made. In the afternoon of this day, we shall read the great charter of Virginia, sent forth unto us by the London Company, but now shall we hear those who would complain or speak against any who have wronged them. Gentlemen, hath any man some complaint, petition, or comment to make that he would have us hear?

Powell: I have.

Speaker: State thy desire, Captain Powell.

Powell: A servant have I, one Thomas Gannett, an idle youth, against whom I would present a petition. This Thomas doth daily spend his time in idling away the hours, neglecting his duties, and concocting false tales against me, his master. He hath openly accused me of theft and drunkenness, of both of which I am innocent, and he hath attempted to persuade mine other servants to testify against me also. I now entreat that this council administer what decision it may think right, unto this false fellow.

Warde: I have seen this Thomas sitting, idle, in the

fields, often as I ride by thy home. When I pass he does often make pretense of earning poor, but 'tis clearly a mere fraud.

Governor: I have heard Thomas Gannett's accusations of Captain Powell and I know them to be untrue. What think ye all?

Twine: Captain Powell is no thief.

Bucke: Nor any drunkard either. 'Tis untrue.

Rossingham: Gannett is a false rogue.

Speaker: To the vote. Shall Gannett be punished as our governor thinks fit?

All: Yes.

Governor: Then I sentence him to be nailed by the ears to the pillory for four days, and also to be publicly whipped. Do ye agree?

All: Aye.

Speaker: The sentence, then, is passed.

Powell: I thank ye, gentlemen.

Speaker: Now turn we to our laws, the laws already made, under which we live. Hath any man some addition for them.

Boys: That have I.

Speaker: Speak then, Mr. Boys.

Boys: I do now say that this town should have some law against drunkenness. Of an evening, many lawless men assemble together, drink too much and raise boisterous shouts, often assaulting helpless ones who pass them. This should verily be stopped, say I.

Governor: 'Tis a wise thought, Boys. But what punishment, gentlemen, should be laid on those guilty of drunkenness?

Warde: Let them be publicly admonished by Mr. Bucke, before all the townsmen.

Rossingham: Nay, let Mr. Bucke but reprove the offender privily, the first time he does become drunk, but publicly the second time.

Lowne: And the third time let him be laid in bolts for a day, and severely tried.

Governor: A goodly suggestion, Lowne. Do ye all who favor this law cry, "Aye."

Rossingham: 'Tis well.

Pierse: A goodly decision.

Ward and the others: Aye, agreed.

Speaker: Who does oppose this law?

Warde: I do not oppose it, but if some evil man taketh no heed of three chastisements, let the assembly devise some special punishment for so ruthless a fellow.

Lowne: To the vote. Put it to the vote.

Speaker: Which among you favor this law and the addition made to it?

All: Let it be passed. I favor it.

Governor: Then, Twine, make careful note of this law, to be sent dutifully unto England for the approval of the London Company.

Twine: Aye, sir.

Speaker: What other man hath ought that he would say?

Rossingham: I have.

Speaker: Speak, Ensign Rossingham.

Rossingham: Gaming, as ye know, gentlemen, is a wicked habit of some of our townsfolk. Cards are shuffled and dice are clicked in many a place, and oftentimes at these games, tricksters have foully cheated some unthinking fellow of his earnings, that should be employed for better things. Should we not, when such games are discovered, force the players to give up all their winnings besides each player delivering unto us ten shillings extra?

Governor: 'Tis a good thought, Rossingham. What think ye, gentlemen?

Warde: Let us pass the law.

Boys: Aye, gaming is an evil habit.

Pierse: And so say I.

Others: Vote. Aye; We need this law.

Speaker: Those in favor of this law, speak.

All: Aye.

Speaker: Who favors it not?

Governor: Then this law, also shall be submitted to the London Company.

Speaker: Sirs, which of ye hath aught else to say ere we adjourn this meeting. (Silence) Then the meeting shall be adjourned.

Governor (rising): Gentlemen, yesterday, while in the forest, I shot a fine stag, well-fattened indeed. Will ye all come to my home and partake of him with me?

Twine: We thank thee, sir.

Boys: A goodly invitation.

Lowne (to Warde): Ah, our governor is a generous man, and his wife a fine preparer of venison.

Warde: Thou sayest sooth and my hunger groweth apace. (They all go out.)

The study of the development of democracy in the United States since 1789 was the task of the eighth graders. They have no course in history and they were not, therefore, able to make as interesting a program as the others. By means of a series of talks, however, they gave some notion of the nature of the American form of government and of the work of our most outstanding leaders. The final assembly was a discussion of the problems which now challenge American democracy. Such things as housing, proper medical care for all, public education, labor unions, racial antagonisms, were dealt with. This assembly was worked out by the twelfth grade class in American history. It is customary in that course for each girl to follow the history of some important question similar to those listed above and each girl was, therefore, able to present the modern aspect of a problem with the background of which she was familiar. This assembly was also a series of

speeches, but the older girls could speak well enough so that they made a real impression on their younger fellow-students. A good deal of healthy criticism and discussion followed this program.

One more fact must be made clear if the nature of this experiment is to be understood. The work done by each class was closely integrated with the usual course of study. In the case of the eighth grade, to be sure, the talks given by the girls were written outside of school hours in spare time, but in the case of all the other classes, the assembly programs were simply public exhibitions of work which is done in the school every year in almost exactly the same manner. The programs did not, therefore, fall in chronological order as they have been described here. Each class presented its part when it was ready to do so. Thus it happened that colonial America was discussed before Periclean Athens. As it was worked out, this non-chronological order did not seem to disturb anyone. The whole project was directed by the history department, but especially in the lower

classes there was close correlation between the English and history departments, and some of the little plays were rehearsed in the English classes.

For at least two reasons the whole experiment was a considerable success. In the first place it was put into operation without abandoning the traditional values which represent our best educational thinking up to this time. Of course our curriculums are not perfect and we shall continue to improve them, but not by hastily rushing into poorly developed new methods because the war has made us more than ever aware of the fact that our old ones are not infallible. In the second place the girls who took part in the program seemed to feel that it answered a real need of their own. Their enthusiasm was maintained throughout the year, even with a repetition of some parts of the various programs for the spring parent-teachers meeting. They seemed to feel that they needed some sort of armor against the difficulties of the day, and that their study of democracy supplied it to them.

Sociology in Illinois High Schools

JUDSON T. LANDIS

Department of Sociology, Southern Illinois Normal University

The study summarized in this article was made by sociologists at Southern Illinois Normal University during the present year. The investigation was the result of a desire to ascertain the status of sociology in Illinois high schools and the approximate training of teachers of the subject.

The information was gathered by means of a questionnaire which was sent to a random sample of 200 teachers who were listed as teachers of sociology or social problems in the 1940-1941 *Illinois School Directory*. Seventy teachers returned the questionnaire.

Sociology has not been offered in high schools in Illinois until very recently. Returns from the questionnaire showed that very few schools offered it before 1930. Seven out of ten schools now offering sociology did not include it in the curriculum until after 1936. Almost half of the schools introduced sociology in the 1938-1939 school year. This is doubtless explained in that the depression caused school people to feel the need for social and economic enlightenment, and yet it was not possible to introduce new subjects until the partial recovery during the late thirties. Fads and frills had been removed from the curriculum and administrators hesitated to introduce new subjects.

Sociology is offered in the last two years of high school almost entirely, although a few schools place it in the freshman and sophomore years. Seven out

of ten schools offer it as a semester course, and in nine out of ten schools, sociology is an elective subject.

Practically all schools use a text. Returns from the sample showed the most used texts to be in the following order: *Social Living*, by Landis and Landis; *Our Changing Social Order*, by Gray, Gavian and Groves; and *Problems of American Democracy*, by Little, Patterson and Burch. Eighteen different texts were used. Almost half of the teachers are critical of the texts in the field. Frequently expressed criticisms were that "texts should include problems of home community," "certain topics should be omitted," and "texts cover too much material for one semester course."

Although it seems that many of those teaching sociology have insufficient training in the subject, this is not surprising since many teacher training institutions have offered little sociology and the subject is comparatively new in the high school curriculum.

In two out of five schools the superintendent, principal, or coach teaches sociology. This is often because no one else is trained in the field and the administrators must teach what is left. There are some schools also where the principal or superintendent would probably feel safer if he were teaching the course because in some quarters there is fear of the word sociology. A few years ago a western university did not have a sociology department although sociology was taught in several departments under

various names. Those in charge thought it wise not to have a sociology department because they realized that the state legislature did not know the difference between sociology and socialism. High school administrators sometimes face a like situation when they decide to introduce a course in sociology.

Of the teachers of sociology, only two per cent majored and only seventeen per cent minored in the field. More had majored in English, science and education than in sociology. However, more of the sociology teachers are drawn from related fields—two out of three having majored in history with additional courses in civics and economics.

We get a better picture of the training of the teachers when we look at the number of semester hours they have in sociology. Approximately half of the teachers hold Master of Arts degrees, yet two out of three had ten semester hours or less of either graduate or undergraduate training in the field, and one in seven had no training at all. Only one in seven had taken twenty semester hours or more in sociology.

Since most schools do not have a full time sociology teacher, it is important to find what additional subjects sociology teachers must teach. Replies from the questionnaire indicated that half of all of the sociology teachers also teach history, one-third teach civics or citizenship and one in seven teaches economics. Only one in ten teaches nothing but sociology.

In general, the evidence gained in this study indicates that the teachers of sociology on the high school level in Illinois are poorly trained in the subject. In making room for sociology in the curriculum, it has been necessary to drop certain other courses and the teachers of those subjects have often been called upon to teach sociology regardless of preparation. This lack of training is explainable, too, because sociology is a new course in the curriculum and col-

leges have not yet trained enough teachers for the positions open.

Students who plan to teach in the social science field should be advised to have a broad major in the social studies rather than in any one of the related fields. Too frequently schools turn out history or sociology majors with little or no work in the other social studies. The history major is very likely to have to teach civics, economics or sociology whether or not he has training or a liking for the field.

Part of the responsibility for the poorly trained teachers in sociology¹ rests upon the institutions and departments which have been training teachers. Teacher training institutions having separate departments in history, economics, government, and sociology must see that the members of these departments are working together for the best interests of future high school teachers rather than thinking only of building bigger departments. A major should be advised to take a general major in the social studies or if majoring in one of the fields, he should be advised to get at least a teaching minor in the other social studies. Students are not acquainted with what they will be called upon to teach and must be guided by well-informed, fair-minded college instructors.

Some teacher training institutions place little emphasis on training in the social studies other than history. There needs to be a greater awareness of the trend in the high schools. It must be recognized that courses in world history are now taking the place of ancient history, medieval history and modern history and that civics, economics, and sociology are being introduced rapidly into the curriculum and that it is the history teacher who is being called upon to teach these newer subjects.

¹ An investigation of the preparation of teachers of civics and economics would probably reveal the same lack for many of the same reasons.

A Christmas-Cheer Suggestion

FLOYD B. BOLTON

East Chicago Public Schools, East Chicago, Indiana

The following test is modeled after a bookkeeping test which was described some time ago in *The Balance Sheet*.¹ As can be seen, if all items are answered correctly, the answers spell Merry Christmas and Happy New Year. The questions are easy enough that the test can be used successfully with junior high school pupils, but twelfth-graders also will enjoy it.

¹ John Allen, "Suggestions for Fun in the Classroom," *The Balance Sheet*, XXII (December 1940), 160.

It is administered the day before the Christmas recess. Several teachers tell their pupils in advance that they are to have a test on that date. The class will start to work in their characteristic way on a test. Ordinarily, after about five minutes, the most alert pupil will snicker. The others will look at him in astonishment or disgust. Practically every one will complete the test within twenty minutes. Since some pupils will not see the point, the teacher should have them check their papers in some manner. Printing

the correct answers on the board and discussing each one is an effective method. If the device is to be used in several classes, pupils should be asked not to talk about it.

EAST CHICAGO SOCIAL SCIENCE PERSONALITIES TEST

This is a matching test. You are to print the capital letter of the correct response in the space provided at the right. Some letters may be used more than once.

- A. Abraham Lincoln
- B. Clara Barton
- C. Christopher Columbus
- D. Patrick Henry
- E. Thomas Jefferson
- F. Huey Long
- G. John D. Rockefeller
- H. Henry Hudson
- I. John Smith
- J. Andrew Jackson
- K. Henry A. Wallace
- L. Henry W. Longfellow
- M. Benjamin Franklin
- N. John Adams
- O. Oliver Wendell Holmes
- P. Woodrow Wilson
- Q. John Quincy Adams
- R. George Washington
- S. Ulysses S. Grant
- T. Theodore Roosevelt
- U. Orville Wright
- V. John J. Pershing
- W. Robert Fulton
- X. Grover Cleveland
- Y. Franklin D. Roosevelt
- Z. Zachary Taylor

1. Discovered lightning was electricity
2. Wrote Declaration of Independence
3. First President of United States
4. Commanded revolutionary army
5. First President to serve three terms
6. An Italian navigator who spent the last portion of his life working for Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain
7. Explored for Dutch in North America
8. Lived at Mount Vernon, Virginia
9. Led first successful English colony
10. Received Lee's surrender
11. Commanded Rough Riders at San Juan
12. Wrote *Poor Richard's Almanac*
13. Set slaves free
14. Northern general during Civil War
15. Born in Kentucky, grew up in Indiana, lived most of life in Illinois, and died in Washington, D.C.
16. Second President of United States
17. "Give me liberty or give me death."
18. An English sea captain who discovered the river which flows past the largest American city
19. President during Civil War
20. President during First World War
21. Proposed League of Nations
22. President of United States in 1941
23. Colonial lawyer who defended British soldiers involved in the Boston Massacre and whose son became President
24. Third President of the United States
25. Invented a successful steamboat
26. Famous American politician who organized a campaign to help infantile paralysis victims
27. First American Secretary of State
28. Sixteenth President of United States
29. "First in war, first in peace, and first in the hearts of his country men."

Revised Historical Viewpoints

RALPH B. GUINNESS

Franklin K. Lane High School, Brooklyn, New York

THE PACIFIC RAILROAD ISSUE IN PRE-CIVIL WAR POLITICS

Many sections contended for the control of votes in Congress prior to the Civil War in order to secure federal aid in constructing a Pacific railroad along a route favorable to their sections or chief

cities. Among their leaders were Douglas, Asa Whitney, Benton, Dodge, Atchinson, Gadsden and Jefferson Davis.

Douglas's activities, described by Hodder,¹ first

¹ Frank H. Hodder, "The Railroad Background of the Kansas-Nebraska Act," *Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, XII (June 1925), 3-22.

centered in Illinois. In 1836 Douglas urged the Illinois State legislature to build railroads in that state. Later in Congress he sought federal land grants to build the Illinois Central and the Southern Cross. In 1844 following a suggestion by Secretary of War Wilkins, Douglas introduced two bills, one to organize Nebraska and the other to establish military posts to protect overland emigration.

At this time Asa Whitney memorialized Congress for a sixty mile wide land grant from Lake Michigan to Puget Sound at ten cents an acre. To such appeals Douglas replied in a pamphlet of October 15, 1845 criticizing this plan. He said the connection from New York to Milwaukee across the Great Lakes would be closed four months in the year by ice. Also it conferred too much land and power on one man. Douglas proposed a railroad from Chicago to the Pacific built through federal land grants. For that purpose he would organize the Nebraska Territory (from the Missouri to the Rockies) and Oregon Territory (from the Rockies to the Pacific). He did not introduce a bill for the purpose as Senator Breese of Illinois championed Whitney's project prevailing upon the Illinois legislature to bind her Congressional representatives to support Whitney's plan.

In 1848 Hall and Atchinson of Missouri introduced in the House and Senate a bill for a railroad from Hannibal to St. Joseph. Leffler, of Iowa, and Douglas introduced a bill for a road from Davenport to Council Bluffs. Douglas also introduced a bill to organize Nebraska. When in the next session it failed in the House he did not immediately reintroduce it.

The South tried to secure territory from Mexico with a route favorable to Southern interests, starting from Memphis, through Arkansas and Texas. It placed in the treaty ending the Mexican War a provision that Mexico would agree to the construction of a railroad south of the Gila River if that should be desired.

At the St. Louis Convention of October 15, 1849 Benton favored a central route starting from St. Louis, while Douglas favored one from Chicago. The convention resolved on a grand trunk road with branches to St. Louis, Memphis and Chicago. When this resolution was presented as a petition to the Senate a motion by Benton tabled it.

In 1850 Douglas secured the passage of a bill creating the Illinois Central by the aid of federal land grants. This road went to Dubuque, Iowa. To secure southern votes his bill included land grants to Alabama and Mississippi to build the Mobile and Ohio Railroad. To secure the votes of Massachusetts in the House, Wentworth of Chicago made a deal with Ashmun of Massachusetts whereby on the tariff bill most of the Illinois Congressmen refrained from voting.

Finally, Douglas got the Kansas-Nebraska Territory organized by agreeing to the repeal of the Missouri Compromise in return for Southern votes. Territorial organization was necessary to remove Indian Treaty restrictions and provide for land distribution and occupation by settlers. Two territories were organized to please the Missouri interests of Hall and Atchinson. In January 1855 Douglas's railroad bill was defeated by one vote in the House. All that he accomplished was to block the choice of a southern route as planned by Davis and others. Davis had sent General Gadsden, president of the South Carolina Railroad Association, the largest in the country, to Mexico to buy the land which later bore his name. This Mexican Gadsden Purchase, south of the Gila River, contained the lowest mountain pass in regions favorable to a southern sectional railroad.

WHITNEY AND THE PACIFIC RAILROAD

Asa Whitney is portrayed by Brown as a disinterested public citizen in his efforts to build a transcontinental railroad.² He was a New York merchant who had been impoverished by the Panic of 1837. In 1842 he went to China to do business for himself and to act as agent for other merchants. On his return he petitioned Congress for land grants to build a road as mentioned above. The sale of the land was to pay for the cost of the road, any unsold lands, twenty years after its completion, were to be turned over to Whitney or his assigns. A bill introduced in Congress provided that Whitney was to receive a salary of \$4,000 a year for his services.

He chose a northern route as it was the shorter from Canton to the Atlantic seaports and the unoccupied northern fertile lands would attract the settlers, dependent on the proposed railroad, necessary to bring in the land sales revenue to defray the costs of construction.

Whitney soon began a campaign of public education in behalf of a transcontinental railroad. Steam railroads were only fifteen years old and the proposed construction was a mammoth undertaking. He sent a letter to the *National Intelligencer* inviting men from all sections to go with him on a tour of inspection of the first part of the route. Eight went with him on the trip from which, during the period from June to the fall of 1845, he sent a series of letters to the press. He reported that the soil was good, rivers easily bridged and lumber and stone easily obtainable in adjacent territory.

Whitney had originally advocated the railroad for carrying on trade with China, but in 1846 with the settlement of the Oregon question and the probability of acquiring Mexico he argued the need of communication with the coast. In the fall of 1846 Whit-

² Margaret L. Brown, "Asa Whitney and His Pacific Railroad Publicity Campaign," *Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, XX (September 1933), 209-224.

ney toured the north cis-Mississippi states addressing many public meetings in behalf of his project.

On January 4, 1847 Whitney addressed a public meeting in New York. He was heckled by a group of National Reformers whose spokesman, Ryckman, demanded a nationally controlled and built railroad. Two years later in a public letter to the *New York Tribune* Ryckman apologized, for then on reading Whitney's plan he realized it was not a land speculation scheme to enrich a corporation.

During 1847, ten state legislatures passed resolutions urging Congress either to adopt the plan or to give it careful consideration. One Forshey, writing in *De Bow's Review*, attacked the plan and advocated a 450 mile route from the Rio Grande to Mazatlan in Mexico in Lower California. Whitney's reply was printed by De Bow. In December after Whitney had addressed the Alabama legislature, it printed and distributed copies of his address declaring in favor of his northern route. Various Congressional committees in 1848 favorably reported bills to carry out Whitney's project. Benton opposed granting 100,000,000 acres prior to a survey. In 1850 *De Bow's Review* said Whitney had proposed the most feasible plan.

In 1851 Whitney went to England to solicit aid there to build the railroad through Canada but without success. After 1852 he ceased his publicity campaign with Congress and the press. He lived thereafter in Washington but took no part in subsequent railroad agitation and legislation.

A third article adds but little to the foregoing fragmentary accounts of the railroad issue in political struggles which in part account for the Civil War.³ Russell points out that in 1856 and 1860 both the Democratic and Republican Parties favored the building of a Pacific railroad through government aid. There were many difficulties in the passage of such legislation. It had to contend with the slavery quarrels, with opposition from projected Isthmian transport interests, with Democrats opposed to federal internal improvements and with objections to land grants to railroads. Even bills to establish mail routes by overland stage were opposed lest they set a precedent for a railroad route.

³ Robert R. Russell, "The Pacific Railway Issue in Politics Prior to the Civil War," *Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, XII (September 1925), 187-201.

Towards a Visual History

O. L. BETTMANN

The Bettmann Archive, New York

It has been truly said that ours is a "Visual Age." Graphs, photographs, and movies all do their bit to represent and interpret for us the world we live in. It is a question whether the advance of these visual media running the gamut from the scientific picture magazine to the comic strip can be welcomed without reservation. There is no doubt, however, that the camera has opened up a new vista of life undreamed of before Daguerre's epochal discovery in 1839.

In the classroom, photography and projection has helped to enhance the interest in our present day civilization. We are not always conscious of the fact, however, that our conception of history too, is about to undergo fundamental changes. Photographic methods have put at our disposal much pictorial evidence concerning the life of the past. Aside from relics, specimens of architecture, etc., the camera has brought to life an amazing array of illustrations, miniature paintings, engravings, etchings, and lithographs reflecting the social life of the past in all its aspects.

The introduction of these teaching aids has added much enrichment to our course of study. We are able, today, to convey to our students a graphic picture of feudal society through a discussion of medieval manuscript illustrations. They are made eye witnesses of the peasant at work. They can discern in contemporary illustrations life in the baronial castle. Even legal procedures and philosophical ideas can be exemplified by the use of such pictorial source material. Sixteenth century woodcuts provide in a similar fashion an introduction to the spirit of the great religious conflicts. A few of Callot's engravings will give us a better conception of the horrors of the Thirty Years' War than all the flowery descriptions of contemporary chronicles. An abundance of pictorial matters, caricatures, lampoons, and posters has been made available dealing with the controversial issues of the French Revolution and the social history of the nineteenth century. The study of such documents supplements to a considerable degree our mental picture of these periods derived from literary sources.

Following this trend, the modern textbook has undergone a complete transformation. It employs visual means wherever possible in addition to textual description. Only a decade or two ago, the solid pages of history textbooks were relieved quite sparingly by illustrations. The recent textbooks of history and social science show a well balanced and integrated application of word and picture. Some leaders in the field already divide the space equally between text and illustrations. Whereas cuts were inserted into the text more or less haphazardly even a decade ago, editors aim today at an effective synchronization of both media. With the increase in pictorial documents and the development of new production methods, it might be possible to create in time an increasing number of "visual histories." In these teaching aids, illustrations would be the dominant factor. They would employ a technique similar to the one developed by modern picture magazines.

The evaluation of new evidence on the life of the past creates added tasks for both the historian and the educator. The student of history will have to acquaint himself with the principles of picture criticism. Misled by the all too trivial truism that a picture is worth a thousand words, we are only too prone to fall victims to a dramatic illustration where our schooling in literary criticism makes us quite suspicious of written statements. We try to detect the colorings in eye witness accounts caused by personal bias or the limited viewpoint imposed upon the writer by the peculiarities of his time. Due to the convincing quality of pictures as compared to words we are not always apt to display an equal degree of discrimination when employing illustrations for the reconstruction of history. The criticism of text has always been part of a historian's training. The interpretation of visual relics has not yet entered to any measurable degree the teaching of history and social sciences. A rather cursory survey of the various classifications of historical pictures in some views concerning their critical appraisal may therefore be in place.

A few antithetical examples can best illustrate the range and divergence of pictorial material available to the historian. When textbooks first made their timid attempts at inserting illustrations, imaginative reconstructions were very much in evidence. Gérôme's "Roman Circus"; David's "Death of Socrates"; "The Surrender of Breda," and similar historical paintings were frequently employed. Recent historical criticism has not taken too kindly to such impressive canvas. It is claimed that these representations show the imprint of certain dogmatic schools of painting, indicative more of the period in which they were created than the one they pretend to pictorialize. It can easily be proven that these scenes demonstrate quite frequently a disconcern for accurate detail. They are

romantic fantasies rather than scientific reconstruction. The more our knowledge of the minutiae advances, the less acceptable they are.

Even if we concede that these romantic paintings do not always stand up under criticism there is no doubt that they have a lustre or fascination, especially for younger students. We know quite well that Washington's men crossing the Delaware did not appear quite as well organized as Leutze suggests in his famous canvas. Or to quote another example: George Caleb Bingham's "Daniel Boone Escorting a Band of Pioneers Through Cumberland Gap" was painted about 1851. It depicts an incident in the year 1775. Though Bingham must have been quite familiar with the setting as such, we have no way of accepting his canvas blindly as historical truth.

There is no question, however, that these popular reconstructions have incited a genuine interest in our past as such. The inspiration they convey probably outweighs the misinformation they could possibly disseminate. Their role is comparable to that of a historical novel. They represent the artist's attempt to recreate a full image of a period or an incident. His imagination aimed in these works at combining the scanty mosaic of data into a living artistic organism. Just as there are good and bad historical novels, there are good and bad historical paintings. The fact that there are probably more bad ones should not prompt us, however, to ignore this material in its entirety. Our improved tools for pictorial research will permit us to utilize these representations with the necessary critical reservation. As long as we clearly point to their limits, we are in no danger of having them misunderstood. They are points of departure and may well set the student on his way towards his own historical research.

Only in rare cases did a great painter witness an epochal historical event. Artists quite frequently have rendered subjects removed by hundreds of years from their own time. It seems only logical to place more belief in a work of art in which the painter depicts an event of his own era. The artist is apt to give a more candid representation of the contemporary scene. His aesthetic sense will at the same time be indicative of the period. However, the contemporaneity of a picture is no absolute criterion of its historical accuracy.

Just as in the field of literary sources, contemporary illustrations are distinctly colored by touches of propaganda. The artist's personal prejudices leave their mark on anything he draws or paints. Nobody, probably, could have been closer to the events of the Boston Massacre than Paul Revere; yet the famous engraving he made of this event was far removed from the actual happenings. In the words of Esther Forbes, the print "shows not what happened on the night of the 5th of March, 1770 but what the Whig

political machine wished the people to believe. It was good propaganda."

In other cases we can trace falsifications in contemporary pictures to the pressure of commercial interests. Benjamin West's "Death of Wolfe," exhibited in 1771 in the Royal Academy, is notoriously incorrect in its detail and in the words of Clarence Webster, "Wolfe and the artist should have been laughed out of existence." It is a proven fact that West agreed to immortalize certain personages in his works, provided he was paid a certain sum for this favor.

The lack of authenticity is not always due to willful falsifications. In appraising contemporary illustrations we must keep in mind the scantiness of sources both pictorial and textual at the disposal of artists. An illustrator assigned today to render a view of the Battle of the Coral Sea would have at his avail an abundance of source material, official photographs, authenticated reports, diagrams, etc., which would furnish a firm base for his reconstruction. Even one hundred years ago such aids were nonexistent. In most cases the artist had to work from dubious eye witness accounts, further falsified as they traveled from mouth to mouth. The representation of the "Battle of Bunker Hill" made by a contemporary artist like Trumbull is probably further removed from the truth than Howard Pyle's treatment of the theme made a century after the battle. Trumbull began his famous representation in 1785, ten years after the fateful incident. As an aide-de-camp to Washington and a member of the Continental army, he must have been quite familiar with the army's equipment (or the lack of it), its tactics, and military conduct. However, he did not have at his disposal the detailed study of the professional historians of the nineteenth century that Pyle could use to achieve a rendering measuring up to our critical standards.

There are other artists like Alonzo Chappel or Ogden who have based their design on very careful study of details. We can place absolute faith in their portrayal of uniforms or other military details. Their pictures as a whole lack a certain artistic verve to make them fully convincing. It is a matter of personal opinion which category we prefer. There is the truly artistic rendering, somewhat licentious as to detail, but captivating the spirit of an event, or on the other hand there is the cut-and-dry studies conveying a faithful image of the contemporary scene but capturing little of its vitality. The selection of the proper pictorial medium will also depend upon the use which we have in mind. A print might well be acceptable for a textbook for young students that would be entirely out of the question for college textbooks. Our attitude toward these two antagonistic schools is comparable to the one we take towards the great

classics of historical writing. We can still derive a good deal of inspiration from the writings of Gibbons, Buckley, Motley, or Prescott. At the same time we are fully aware that our greater knowledge of facts might warrant slight rectifications, but this does not impair the inspiration derived from the writing of these classics. They are valuable as a synthesis just as a great historical canvas. They do not replace but supplement the analytical study.

The various criteria developed here for pictorial sources of the eighteenth century can as well be applied to the graphic resources of preceding periods. Though the measure of authenticity achieved in pictorial documents varies in different periods, it does not follow a strictly chronological sequence. The contents of many lively scenes appearing in Egyptian murals can be corroborated by other finds in Egyptian tombs and a rich literary tradition. The candid character of certain Greek vase paintings has been established without a doubt. In contrast to these very early pictorial records, the medieval miniature paintings made a thousand years and more after the flowering of the Greek and Roman arts have by no means the high standards of authenticity. Similar "to cultural lags" in the development of our society we have "lags" in pictorial documentation. The medieval miniature offers some interesting observations in this regard.

In appraising medieval illustrations, we have to keep in mind that it wasn't the aim of the medieval scribe to depict his world with a high degree of felicity. He was rather pledged to copy faithfully representations approved as valid by the church authorities. He derived his artistic impulses, not from the outside world, but through a study of the Holy Books. His aim was to perpetuate a tradition rather than to pictorialize his every-day world. Only accidentally and against his will did the contemporary scene enter into his representations; even then he saw the world at an angle dictated by the all pervading religious interests. As far as the classical world was concerned the medieval scribe was compelled by lack of historical sources to depict Virgil in the garb of a church father, the Siege of Troy in terms of medieval siegework. Very often these scenes offer unintentionally glimpses into medieval life.

The strict adherence to a text frequently creates odd pictorial interpretations which have to be cleared up in order to evaluate properly miniature paintings as historical sources. For instance, if we were to believe blindly in a curious illustration of Valerius Maximus, of the School of Fouquet, we would get an entirely wrong impression of medieval bathing habits. This illustration shows the "Hanging Baths" invented by Sergius Orata. We can observe that a company of bathers are sitting in wooden tubs hoisted to the ceiling and suspended in this odd place. The

artist misinterpreted the words "Pensilia balinea" as "hanging bathtubs" whereas it was intended to mean a form of shower bath in which the water reservoir was to be raised to the ceiling and the water to drop down on the bathers assembled on the floor. The interpretation of such material has to take into account the context in which they appear. Just as a literary source offers absolute authenticity in rare cases, only pictorial documents have to be brought into proper focus by constant critical appraisal of all the facts surrounding their origin, purpose, and idiosyncrasies typical of the respective periods.

In general, we can expect a higher degree of authenticity in the representation of every-day life further removed from the controversial, social, and political issues. A court painter might add a few luxurious accessories to his representation of a banquet or may depict the amusements of the peasants a bit rougher than they actually were. In this entire range of subject matter the artist's imagination is less apt to run riot than in the field of the affairs of state. It is interesting to observe, in this connection that accidental information conveyed by the illustration of literary masterpieces is often more valuable than the actual subject matter which the artist set out to dramatize. The illustrations of La Fontaine's *Fables* by the eighteenth century artist Oudry, for instance, offer much information on social life of that century.

aside from the incidents pertinent to the stories as such. A seventeenth century edition of Virgil's *Bucolics*, illustrated by Wenzel Hollar, is entirely useless as far as the Roman world is represented. But an almost panoramic view of agricultural life and rural customs of Hollar's own time is given.

With the ever-increasing emphasis on the study of social relations and cultural development, the educator will find in the pictorial tradition of the past a veritable storehouse of teaching aids. The fact that their degree of authenticity varies increases rather than impairs their educational value. A discussion of pictorial sources, their limits and shortcomings should offer a definite stimulus to classroom discussions. A prerequisite of this development is, however, that the tools be provided for the critical evaluation of such material. A knowledge of the basic techniques employed by the artists in various centuries is indispensable. The personal and social background of the artist is important to determine the value of a painting or engraving as a historical source. The weight of certain aesthetic traditions upon his renderings must be analyzed with great care. We do not have to fear that we may deviate from the truth in representing documents which have certain unavoidable shortcomings. So long as we clearly point out these limits we will be able to make good use of them in our courses of study.

That Unit on Democracy

E. W. THORNTON

Sioux Falls College, Sioux Falls, South Dakota

Social science has re-discovered democracy. The fact is reflected in new courses or units in high school and college curricula the country over. New books are appearing monthly, new syllabi emerging, designed to establish the new subject of democracy in the course of study and give it a permanent berth in the curriculum.

There has been no more important response of education to the world situation than this. It constitutes one of our major contributions to the war effort. Moreover, it has provided us with a golden opportunity to re-vitalize a branch of teaching which had become formal and conventionalized. Under the stimulus of opposing ideologies in a world rocked by war and revolution, students are being led to a candid examination of democracy with genuine eagerness.

Yet a trend is already evident, with the passing of the first wave of enthusiasm, to formalize the new

unit within conventional limits, and in so doing to rob it of the dynamic quality essential to its practical function. Having "adopted" the course, or having added the unit to some one of the social studies, we are tempted to sit back in the arm chair with a sense of achievement, as if we had just purchased another bond and tucked it safely away in the strong box. The democracy unit faces the danger of being tucked away in the curricular strong box for the duration.

The trend takes a number of forms. One is to narrow the study down to its traditional American concept of purely political institutions. A proper emphasis on government and politics is surely needed, but the present crisis for democracy lies mainly in the field of economic relations. American democracy in the past has been a political achievement, but the struggle today involves more than the retention of those political gains, important as they are. Democracy's battle line is extended into the

areas of industry, capital and labor, economic opportunity, monopoly control, the misuse of economic power, ceilings to private fortunes, the right to work, and social security, to mention only a few specifics. They represent a new frontier in the advance of the democratic ideal. Can our present political democracy function with the energy and vitality necessary to bring under control these powerful forces of an industrialized age? That vital question should receive large attention in the teaching of democracy.

A second danger is to identify the democracy unit exclusively with the issues of the present war. In the first place we should need no reminder that the threat from abroad constitutes only one danger to democratic ideals. Victory in the war will not assure the triumph of democracy on the home front, although it is essential to that triumph. In the second place, the issues of the present war are too complex to serve as a basis for the study of democracy. The dullest student will sense the ideological confusion apparent in a mere listing of the United Nations. Moreover, democracy itself is too complex to fit into such a framework, even if the war were purely a contest between democracy and dictatorship. The war, and winning it, are indeed the most immediate problems facing us, but education must also look ahead to still more basic problems of democracy in a post-war world. We should, it is true, utilize to the full the all-absorbing interest of the war as a motivation for the study of democracy in contrast to dictatorship, but we should not permit the war to dominate the subject. The democracy unit must be more than a study of current events.

In the time of war it is difficult to make a fair appraisal of the revolutionary movements which produced the ugly systems now found in the Axis countries. Therein lies another hazard in teaching the democracy unit,—the tendency to ignore the causes of fascism while condemning the results. No greater aid in teaching democracy can be found than a study of the origins of the European dictatorships in an effort to discover why liberal government as it existed there was unable to maintain itself. American youth, who will face the complex problem of making democracy work (or seeing it die), need to examine carefully the post-war history of Italy, Germany, and Spain. Why, for example, did people lose faith in democracy? To what extent was fascism fostered by an aristocracy who sacrificed political freedom for material interests? How important was the private army? What part was played by propaganda, economic distress, irreligion, civic indifference? Such questions should be related to conditions here in America in a frank and open manner if we would keep the democracy unit from losing its original dynamic quality.

A fourth danger resides in one of the objectives of

the course, that of developing a deeper appreciation and loyalty for American ideals. Consequently we are tempted to slide over the present short-comings of the democratic process. Actually, however, a frank recognition of the weaknesses of democracy is essential to the growth of that loyalty which we hope to foster. Let us not close our eyes to the clumsy and inefficient methods, the existence of graft, the lip service from those who betray democracy by their acts, nor be blind to the minorities' problem and incipient racism in our own land. Let us send our students to stand before Mussolini (in print) and listen to him thunder against our democratic way of life. Let them examine all the charges brought against democracy by those who would destroy it. Let them sift out the false charges and weigh the true ones. If democracy can not stand the test of a fair and rational appraisal it is not worth our loyalty. Above all, while recognizing the weaknesses, we should avoid the fallacy that they are all inherent in democracy. Mankind has acquired some unfavorable traits which cling to him regardless of how society is organized. Strangely enough they are being revealed in dictatorships as well as in democracies.

Still another trend toward formalism can be seen in some of the outlines now appearing. Considerable emphasis is given to the "historical development" of democracy. This is all to the good if we observe the proper historical perspective. But let us not clothe democracy in the shrouds of history for the sake of winning veneration for her age. In spite of Greek individualism, in spite of the teachings of Jesus, and the persistence of a sublime *hope* in the breast of man, the emergence of political democracy on a national scale actually came late in history. It is the recency of the democratic experiment rather than a long past which dominates the present scene. Democracy should never be presented to Young America as a venerable old lady, bent under the shawl of tradition, but as a virile adolescent, impatient after a short century of restricted growth, eager to find his true stride in history. The "historical background" which stresses the free life of the ancient Greeks (resting on a foundation of human slavery), and then ignores the nineteenth century struggle against the effort to "freeze" democracy on the bourgeois level, well illustrates the danger of transforming the democracy unit into a conventionalized pattern of formal, meaningless teaching.

Finally, perhaps the greatest deterrent to the realization of the original purpose of the democracy unit lies in the fact that it has now become an accepted part of the course of study, which takes away its emergency aspect. That is not regrettable in itself except that we are likely to forget the actual crisis existing. We can not afford to think of democratic institutions as we do the solar system—something

fixed and permanent, awaiting only our study. The dangers facing democracy are most imminent. Its right to live may be decided by the fortunes of war before we will have covered the unit in our classes. Assuming military victory, however, the crisis for democracy will be but slightly allayed. Our students must face the very real question whether democracy can live in a world of closed frontiers. Will it go

like the buffalo on the plains? Or can an industrialized world whose technological pace has been sharply stepped up by modern war be made to fit the pattern of democracy? Decisions of historic import for American ideals will be made in this generation. Democracy, not being an instinct, has to be learned. It is worth at least a "unit" of study.

Canada and Hemisphere Defense

FRANCES NORENE AHL

Glendale, California

For more than a decade we have thought primarily in terms of Latin America when discussing problems of hemisphere defense. In fact, as early as 1923 when the Pan American conference met at Santiago, Chili, there was talk of an American League of Nations. The security of the Western World has been a major subject for the consideration of each of the succeeding conferences.

It was not, however, until President Roosevelt and Premier King announced the Ogdensburg Agreement in August, 1940, that we recognized the tremendous significance of Canada in the whole program. And, although not then at war, we entered into defense arrangements with a belligerent power. Months before the tragedy at Pearl Harbor, we were erecting a chain of enormous airports in the Dominion preparatory to our defense of Alaska.

From the geographical standpoint our northern neighbor has a vital role in hemisphere defense. She constitutes one-half the area of all North America. She is 100,000 square miles larger than continental United States.

Now that Japan has landed on the Aleutian Islands, the security of Alaska and the whole Pacific Coast is further endangered. The real value to the Nipponese, however, of their seizure of the islands is in the defensive field. They are in a position to interfere with any efforts on the part of our nation to make direct attacks on Tokyo or Yokohama. As long as Japan controls the island extensions of Alaska, the United States cannot use them as refueling bases while making air attacks on Nippon from points in the neighboring territory. Furthermore, Japan is in a position to interfere with any aid we might attempt to send Russia by way of Alaska.

The construction of the great international highway, that when completed will link Seattle with Fairbanks, is being hastened as a military project. New air routes north to Siberia are being explored. Countless thousands of soldiers and defense workers are being flown to the territory that today looms

as the region nearest to Japan, our Axis enemy in the Far East.

Canada guards the entrance to the one important waterway leading to the interior of North America from the Atlantic Coast. Several months ago U-boat attacks occurred in the St. Lawrence River, and the resultant sinking of merchant vessels by torpedoes was officially announced.

The Dominion's navy is small, but, in addition to protecting Canada's coast, it is watching the sea-lanes of the North Atlantic and escorting convoys of merchant ships laden with munitions and food for the mother country.

Army Week, June 29 to July 5, honored Canadian soldiers. A large percentage of the active army—which exceeds 320,000—is overseas. The reserve army of some 130,000 is being reorganized to strengthen defenses at home. The Seventh and Eighth Divisions are being mobilized to protect the East and West coasts.

As the "Airdrome of Democracy" Canada is rendering an outstanding service in hemisphere defense. The most important job of the Royal Canadian Air Force is to administer the British Commonwealth Air Training Plan; to train large numbers of pilots and airmen for the many war theatres. The undertaking is a joint one in which Canada, the United Kingdom, Australia and New Zealand all cooperate. One frequently encounters on the streets of Calgary, or other Canadian cities, air cadets from far away Auckland, Sydney or Melbourne.

Nearly one hundred schools, training the various categories of airmen, are scattered across the country. Their facilities are available to any of the United Nations. Many young men from our own land have crossed the border to receive their training in these institutions.

Previous to the world conflict, Canada ranked sixth in total world trade. Her productive capacity has enormously increased since she went to war on September 10, 1939. Nearly 700,000 out of a popu-

lution of less than 12,000,000 are engaged in war industries.

Canadian industry is not suited to produce great flying fortresses, huge ships, heavy tanks and heavy guns. But the aircraft plants are turning out four hundred planes a month. Every fourth day witnesses the launching of a new 10,000-ton cargo ship. Hundreds of small Canadian-made tanks have been sent to Russia. Various types of light guns are being manufactured in ever increasing numbers. During the past six months more explosives have been made than during all of World War I.

Canada's potential war power, in the western hemisphere, is second only to that of the United States. In addition to producing great quantities of small arms, shells and ammunition, she supplies a wealth of vital war materials—copper, nickel and asbestos.

Canada's total war effort calls for an enormous outlay of resources and manpower, for huge financial sacrifices. Over \$10,000,000 a day is what the Canadian people—less than 12,000,000—must provide to the federal treasury in this current fiscal year. During the next twelve months more than

eighty-eight per cent of the Dominion's national expenditures will go for war. This is an amount nearly twice the entire cost of World War I. It is seven times the sum spent during a like period when the country is at peace. Approximately fifty-two per cent of the total governmental cost will be supplied by tax revenues, and the rest by borrowing.

Since September 1, 1942 sharply increased income taxes, defense taxes and the compulsory saving levy have been collected from the pay envelopes. Instead of the former exemption of \$750 for single person, \$1500 for married persons and \$400 for each dependent child, there is a single flat exemption of \$660 and \$150 dollars may be deducted for married persons and \$80 for each dependent.

With the increasing demands and sacrifices exacted by the war, Canadians are foregoing many of the luxuries and services that they are normally accustomed to enjoy. All of the resources of the land, as well as the manpower, are pledged to victory. Today the Dominion shares with the United States grave problems of hemisphere defense. Canadians like ourselves are fighting for a world where freedom and democracy can continue to grow.

Reverse Chronology: A Method in Teaching European History

HERBERT FINCH

West Nottingham Academy, Colona, Maryland

The problems of a guide for the arriving passenger from a time machine in some fantastic science-fiction tale are certainly no greater than those problems facing the teacher of a class in European history. The parallel does not stop here. The unwilling victim of a device that has physically transported him into another age can have few more difficulties than the student suddenly finding himself surrounded by the events and ideas of a millennium ago.

True to a degree of all history studies, the strangeness of the conditions is most complete in beginning an attempt to understand the European events of the past several centuries. Here is not the simple task of gradually tracing a process of development from its origins, as in ancient history. Nor is there even the comparatively simple task of following events of a country from its founding, as in American history. Whether the class in European history begins with the ninth, thirteenth, or sixteenth century, each student finds himself attempting to cope with events and conditions in a civilization already well developed in customs, philosophies, and historical traditions. And all of them unfamiliar. It is not strange

that a boy or girl may go through an entire course without understanding the basic facts and end an uninteresting year with a failing mark. It has been too often found by teachers that by ignoring the special difficulties, by hastily building a synthetic background, or by making superficial comparisons between the present and the past, they could not present a satisfactory introduction.

When plans are being made for the next year, it might be well to consider the advantages of attempting to meet this peculiar difficulty by completely reversing the usual chronology—beginning the study with current events and working back to the earliest events to be considered. Radical as the idea may seem, it is not altogether new and has been used by the writer with sufficient success to merit consideration.

The main advantage of this procedure is the always preferable method of beginning with that which is most familiar. Not only are most boys and girls acquainted with many phases of current European affairs from press and radio, but that knowledge comes from a great interest in men, places, events,

and sometimes historical factors that make up the adventure of contemporary news. Therefore, along with the familiarity with events, we have the second important reason for beginning with the present—it is the point of greatest interest. How often during a year of the traditionally presented work are comments heard concerning class impatience to come to Marne and Jutland or to the beginnings of the present conflict? It is certainly far better, by any pedagogic theory, to have the first experience be with that phase of a subject that combines the greatest knowledge with the greatest interest.

The benefits of more readily seeing causal relationships are also present. Once a situation is clearly understood all of us find it easier to trace its causes, than to find the future from present conditions. The saying, "hindsight is better than foresight," can be applied as well to historical perspectives as to viewpoints in individual lives. Especially under current conditions, when it is so generally viewed as necessary to connect all subjects to either the material or intellectual furtherance of war aims, does it seem good to study events of recent times in Europe as direct or indirect contributing factors in bringing about those conditions.

The loss of suspense, a possible objection, would be important if it were certain that most classes go breathlessly from one tense episode to the next. Classes, unfortunately, do not usually have that spirit. Children outside of school seem to ask "What happened then?" no more often than "Why?"

The first class period of a year planned according to this approach would doubtlessly be spent in a study of news reports in the current daily paper and of the war map for that day. The logical questions of what detailed events led up to the various military and diplomatic headlines take a class directly into the current events magazine subscribed to for the school library.

Here and in the other issues of the preceding several months can be found material for class periods during the entire first week or two. The students might well be guided into minor research projects in tracing a particular series of actions as related in the successive issues as well as in other sources. Their reports would not then be the result of arbitrary assignments but motivated as an effort to provide for the class information that could be obtained from no text nor standard reference book.

The use of a text would not begin until the periodical material merged with a convenient point in it. Most text units lend themselves easily to a reverse chronology. Although it is recognized that the contents and order of these later units must vary with the teacher and the text, a suggested basic outline is:

1. Current events
2. Recent developments
3. Germany and Hitler
4. Italy and Mussolini
5. League of Nations
6. Post-war conditions, especially in Russia
7. World War
8. Nationalistic ambitions
9. Reform and democracy
10. Autocratic suppression
11. Napoleon
12. French Revolution
13. Period of national development
14. Scientific and religious revolutions
15. Renaissance
16. Middle Ages

It will be observed that the origins of each of these units are in the one immediately following. Also, the tendency is for each unit to be of increasing inclusiveness as students become more and more accustomed to grasping grouped events and general ideas.

The results obtained were encouraging. In addition to the learning of the usual facts probably far better than otherwise, the stated aims of having more interest and of easily tracing causal relationships were realized. An unexpected outcome was finding that the importance of some of mankind's fundamental beliefs which have influenced people through the centuries became apparent of themselves after several units. Also, work in map and report methods was better learned when the first research work was done in modern times rather than in the more obscure periods.

Some special difficulties were encountered along the way. It was necessary to use a standard text (Hayes and Moon, *European History*) not intended for an unorthodox chronology, and extra time was needed to accustom the class to the new approach. But the units as arranged in this text could be fitted without distortion into the experimental scheme, and the inconveniences to the student were nullified by the pleasures of taking part in an avowed experiment. The knowledge that the work, beyond the facts in the daily lesson, is in itself important—important in the very serious and worthwhile business of finding better ways of teaching others—proves with many students to be one of the best incentives to effort and cooperation.

It then seems, by way of summary, that for teaching facts, showing causes, arousing interest, and making European history an easier and more pleasant task both principle and practice would support the advisability of seriously examining the merits of a reverse chronology.

Illustrative Materials for the Classroom

FLORENCE BERND¹

Director, Teachers' Materials Bureau, Macon, Georgia

In offering this series of articles combining source material, music and art, there has been a fourfold purpose:

1. To give access to illustrative material not easily obtainable by the vast army of social studies teachers in the rural sections and smaller towns and cities where library facilities are limited.
2. To provide an opportunity for cooperative contributions by members of the class and also of the music and art departments. With this in view, one group may give a report on the worthiness of the source, another group may present an explanation of the picture in relation to the source as a basis for discussion, while a third may be responsible for an account of the origin of the music and its value.
3. To impress upon young minds the basic fact that this world's progress and culture stem from many lands and ages—a Roman Pope, a German reformer, an English chronicler, king and commoner of many diverse creeds and callings.
4. To open up ever widening horizons that may lead boys and girls to find within themselves some measure of contentment to counterbalance the feverish dependence on externals in today's distraught world.

Only the simplest music has been offered in order that it may be within the range of the young. This may be richly supplemented in many cases by the use of victrola records, though nothing can take the place of student participation.

It may be said that this is no untried plan. It was used over a long period with ninth grade boys to whom one might doubt its appeal, but on the contrary and perhaps a bit disconcerting to the teacher, it is a fact that after many years, these boys, grown into mature men have remembered the music and the picture and the contents of the source, when they have forgotten the name of the textbook.

CHARLEMAGNE²

Charles was large and robust, of commanding stature and excellent proportions, for it appears that he measured in height seven times the length of his

¹ Miss Bernd was formerly head of the history department of the Lanier High School for Boys and now has headquarters at the Lanier High School for Girls, Macon, Georgia.

² J. H. Robinson, *Readings in European History*, I (Boston: Ginn and Company, 1904), 126-128. Einhard's *Life of Charlemagne* is the source for this material.

own foot. The top of his head was round, his eyes large and animated, his nose somewhat long. He had a fine head of gray hair, and his face was bright and pleasant; so that, whether standing or sitting, he showed great presence and dignity. Although his neck was thick and rather short, and his belly too prominent, still the good proportions of his limbs concealed these defects. His walk was firm, and the whole carriage of his body was manly. His voice was clear, but not so strong as his frame would have led one to expect.

His health was good until the last four years of his life, when he was attacked with frequent fevers, and latterly walked lame on one foot. Even then he relied more on his own judgment than on the advice of physicians, whom he almost hated because they used to recommend him to leave off roasted meats, which he preferred, and to accustom himself to boiled.

He took constant exercise in riding and hunting, which was natural for a Frank, since scarcely any nation can be found to equal them in these pursuits. He also delighted in the natural warm baths, frequently exercising himself by swimming, in which he was very skillful, no one being able to outstrip him. It was on account of the warm baths at Aix-la-Chapelle that he built his palace there and lived there constantly during the last years of his life and until his death. . . .

He wore the dress of his native country, that is, the Frankish; next his body a linen shirt and linen drawers; then a tunic with a silken border, and stockings. He bound his legs with garters and wore shoes on his feet. In the winter he protected his shoulders and chest with a vest made of the skins of otters and sable. He wore a blue cloak, and was always girt with his sword, the hilt and belt being of gold and silver. Sometimes he wore a jeweled sword, but he did so only on great festivals or when receiving foreign ambassadors.

He thoroughly disliked the dress of foreigners, however fine; and he never put it on except at Rome—once at the request of Pope Adrian, and again, a second time, to please Adrian's successor, Pope Leo. He then wore a long tunic, chlamys, and shoes made after the Roman fashion. On festivals he used to walk in processions clad in a garment woven with gold, and shoes studded with jewels, his cloak fastened with a golden clasp, and wearing a crown of gold set with precious stones. At other times his dress differed little from that of a private person.

In his eating and drinking he was temperate; more

particularly so in his drinking, for he had the greatest abhorrence of drunkenness in anybody, but more especially in himself and his companions. He was unable to abstain from food for any length of time, and often complained that fasting was injurious to him. On the other hand, he very rarely feasted, only on great festive occasions, when there were very

at night, he would repose for two or three hours. He slept at night so lightly that he would break his rest four or five times, not merely by awakening, but even getting up.

While he was dressing and binding on his sandals, he would receive his friends; and also, if the count of the palace announced that there was any



CHARLEMAGNE
King of the Franks and Roman Emperor

large gatherings. The daily service of his table consisted of only four dishes in addition to the roast meat, which the hunters used to bring in on spits, and of which he partook more freely than of any other food.

While he was dining he listened to music or reading. History and the deeds of men of old were most often read. He derived much pleasure from the works of St. Augustine, especially from his book called *The City of God*. He partook very sparingly of wine and other drinks, rarely taking at meals more than three draughts. In summer, after the midday repast, he would take some fruit and one draught, and then, throwing aside his clothes and shoes as

case which could only be settled by his decision, the suitors were immediately ordered into his presence, and he heard the case and gave judgment as if sitting in court. And this was not the only business that he used to arrange at that time, for he also gave orders for whatever had to be done on that day by any officer or servant.

He was ready and fluent in speaking, and able to express himself with great clearness. He did not confine himself to his native tongue, but took pains to learn foreign languages, acquiring such knowledge of Latin that he could make an address in that language as well as in his own. Greek he could better understand than speak. Indeed, he was so polished in

speech that he might have passed for a learned man.

He was an ardent admirer of the liberal arts, and greatly revered their professors, whom he promoted to high honors. In order to learn grammar, he at-

of his couch, that when he had leisure he might practice his hand in forming letters; but he made little progress in this task, too long deferred and begun too late in life.

Confirmation.

VENI CREATOR (First Tune)
To be sung in unison.

Sarum Plainsong, Mode VIII.

Come, Ho-ly Ghost, Cre-a-tor blest, Vouch-safe with-in our
souls to rest; Come with Thy grace and heavenly aid,
And fill the hearts which Thou hast made. A-men.

VENI, CREATOR SPIRUS

The Latin text is supposed to have been written about 800 A.D. and is often ascribed to Charlemagne:

Veni, Creator Spiritus,
Mentes tuorum visita,
Imple superna gratia
Quae Tu creasti pectora.

Music and English version from the *Hymnal of the Protestant Episcopal Church*, published by the Church Pension Fund of New York, No. 375, page 466 (first tune.)

tended the lectures of the aged Peter of Pisa, a deacon; and for other branches he chose as his preceptor Albinus, otherwise called Alcuin, also a deacon—a Saxon by race, from Britain, the most learned man of the day, with whom the king spent much time in learning rhetoric and logic, and more especially astronomy. He learned the art of determining the dates upon which the movable festivals of the Church fall, and with deep thought and skill most carefully calculated the courses of the planets.

Charlemagne also tried to learn to write, and used to keep his tablets and writing book under the pillow

Visual and Other Aids

ROBERT E. JEWETT

Department of Education, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio

"One of the major and continuing responsibilities of the secondary school is the training of youth for citizenship in a democracy. This responsibility is particularly heavy in wartime." Thus is education for wartime citizenship defined by the United States Office of Education in its publication the *High School Victory Corps*.

As implementation of this point of view within the social studies area, the *Victory Corps* pamphlet states further that, "There should be: More positive teaching of the meaning of democracy, of our history, heroes, and traditions, of the duties and responsibilities as well as the privileges of citizenship, of our American neighbors both north and south, of our Allies in the United Nations."

Films and recordings, correlated with other instructional methods, have an effective role to play in the realization of the above objective. The following list of films and recordings is given as a suggestion of the type of material which can be used as instruments for the realization of the above objective:

Films depicting the American tradition such as *Sons of Liberty* and *Land of Liberty*. Included here would be all authentic historical films depicting the American scene.

The two following one reel 16 mm. sound films, issued by Father Hubbard Educational Films, 188 West Randolph Street, Chicago, Illinois, deal with our American neighbors:

Canada at War—This film depicts Canadian wartime activities. The domestic life of Mexico is portrayed in the film entitled *The Heart of Mexico*.

Among many fine films dealing with the United Nations beyond the western hemisphere, the following recent releases by Brandon Films should be noted:

Under Siege, a one reel film, tells the story of Russia's total war effort against the nazi war machine. The six-reel film, *Red Tanks*, deals specifically and dramatically with the Russian tank units in action against the enemy. The third film in this series is entitled, *Czecho-Slovakia Marches On*, which recounts the activities of the Czechs in exile.

Recordings. The RCA (Victor) recording of "Ballad for Americans" featuring Paul Robeson is an excellent interpretation of the American tradition.

"The Cavalcade of America," both the 1939-40 and 1940-41 series produced by E. I. du Pont de Nemours and Company and distributed by the Recordings Division of the American Council on Edu-

cation, New York City, furnish excellent material for clarifying the American tradition. The same purpose is served by the "Lest We Forget" series 1 and 2, produced and distributed by the Institute of Oral and Visual Education, Radio Division, New York City.

"The Americans All—Immigrants All" series of twenty-four 30-minute programs, distributed by the Federal Radio Education Committee, United States Office of Education, Washington, D.C., emphasizes the contributions made by the various immigrant groups to our American culture.

The second objective of the *Victory Corps* program relating to citizenship education is stated in the following words: "There should be instruction in wartime economics, in rationing, conservation, and other matters of consumer education; in problems of war financing and inflation control." Here is an admitted weakness of visual and auditory aids. However, the social studies teacher should consult the film division of the Office of War Information for possible future releases of films on these subjects.

The *Victory Corps* states the third objective of wartime citizenship as: "New geographic concepts more appropriate for an air age must be developed. Polar projection maps should be studied, time and distance factors in land, sea, and air transportation emphasized. Latitude and longitude, meridians, and parallels should be understood; location and importance of the world's natural resources reviewed."

Films. A one-reel silent film entitled *How to Read a Map*, issued by Walter O. Gutlohn, Inc., 25 West 45th Street, New York City, shows how to interpret military and geographical maps.

Erpi Classroom Films, Inc., 1841 Broadway, New York City, has released the following 16 mm. sound film entitled *Airplane Changes our World Map*. This one-reel film traces the evolution of map-making. The various types of distortions of maps are illustrated. The concepts of latitude and longitude are clearly drawn. The effects of the airplane upon map making are given. The Great Circle route is depicted.

The *Victory Corps* states the following as the fourth objective in the wartime citizenship training program: "Students should learn of the organization of their Government in wartime; of the organization of the armed forces; of Selective Service regulations. They should keep in touch with the progress of our war effort, with the course of the war, and with the pronouncement of responsible Government officials

concerning post-war objectives."

Films. Castle Films, Inc., 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York City, has produced the following three films in cooperation with the United States Office of Civilian Defense. *Civilian Fire Fighters*, a 16 mm. sound or silent film, describes the organization of auxiliary fire-fighting units. This film portrays methods of combating incendiary bombs. *The Civilian Serves* enumerates ways in which the civilian can contribute to the war effort. *Air Raid Alert* depicts the duties of an air raid warden as well as portraying the precautions which the householder should take during an air raid.

Castle Films also has recently released *Washington In Wartime*. This film portrays the activities of the various war agencies and important meetings of such national figures as President Roosevelt, Donald Nelson, and General Marshall.

A five-reel film, released by Walter O. Gutlohn, Inc., entitled *Target for Tonight* gives a graphic

portrayal of an R.A.F. raid on Germany. The same film agency has released a one-reel sound film entitled *The Middle East* which shows the strategic necessity for holding the Middle East against Axis forces. Castle Films have released *Midway and Coral Sea Battles*. The film depicts the bombing of a Japanese cruiser and the role of the Lexington in these engagements.

The reader's attention is called to the recent film releases of the Film Division of the Office of War Information described in this Department in the October issue of THE SOCIAL STUDIES.

Due to the very nature of the *Victory Corps* program a premium is placed upon the time factor in the realization of its objectives. Therefore, it is imperative that we use the most effective methods in carrying forward this program. Hence the use of visual and auditory aids is not only justified, but should be emphasized.

News and Comment

MORRIS WOLF

Head, Social Studies Department, Girard College, Philadelphia

WAR EMERGENCIES AND HISTORY TEACHING

Surely all teachers of history in the secondary school have been pondering how best to adapt their teaching to these war days. They will welcome Harry Bard's account of the "Wartime Changes in the History Course" already instituted in the schools of Baltimore. Mr. Bard, supervisor of secondary school history in Baltimore, tells about it in the October issue of *The School Executive*.

A conference of the city's history teachers agreed that revision must be in terms of:

1. Creating an understanding of what the war means to youth.
2. Getting students to appreciate the stakes in this war.
3. Creating an understanding of the course of the war and the resultant peace.
4. Strengthening loyalties to our American democracy.

To achieve these aims, a six-fold program was developed. First, a new history unit was worked out. The search for materials and unit topics was eased by such published statements as *War Policy for American Schools*, by the Educational Policies Commission; *What the War Means to Us*, by the United States Office of Education; and statements by the National Council for the Social Studies. The substance of the unit is indicated by its three divisions:

"What the War Means to Us," "What Is at Stake in This War?" and "The War: Its Causes, Course and the Resultant Peace."

Study of this unit, which takes about a month, is only a preparation for other and continuing activity by pupils. Current historical events are integrated with the regularly scheduled work in history and with work in English and other fields. Thus all students are reached. By such means as pageants, films, and the radio, the meaning of Americanism is emotionalized. The readiness and competence of the teachers themselves are improved by lectures on the war, delivered by historians from nearby colleges, and by other forms of in-service training. Finally, a planning committee of social studies teachers has been set up to survey the changing scene of our day and, from time to time, to report the findings and their meaning for education. Already this committee has described how Baltimore itself, a defense-industries area, is changing rapidly; and how teaching must change in consequence.

Guidance to the considerable literature on education and the war will be found in the October issue of *Progressive Education*, especially in the long leading article by Frederick L. Redefer, entitled "The School's Role in Winning the War and the Peace." The entire issue deals with the subject, "Education for War and Peace." Helpful also is Commissioner John W. Studebaker's statement of "What the

Schools and Colleges Can Do to Help Win the War," in the October number of *The Journal* of the National Education Association. Of official significance is the account, in the October issue of *The Clearing House*, of the "Schools at War Program," which is sponsored for the entire nation by the federal Treasury Department and Office of Education and its Wartime Commission. The account is written by Nancy Lerrick of the War Savings Staff of the Treasury Department, under the title: "Total War Means Schools at War."

A recent *Bulletin* of the National Association of Secondary School Principals dealt with the subject of "The Best Kind of High-School Training for Military Service." A useful summary of it appeared as the leading article in *The Education Digest* for September. The statement is approved both by the United States Office of Education Wartime Committee and by army and naval officers. The summary covers all phases of training: physical, vocational, scholastic, and civilian war activities. Teachers of social studies are asked to teach the reasons for this war, its background and its current phases, the requirements for democratic victory, and the obligations of every citizen in this crisis.

URBAN COMMUNITY AND MODERN SCHOOL

The process of urbanization in modern industrial nations has been marked as unique in history. Few, however, have come to grasp its far-reaching consequences. Yet the new type of environment and the new type of man fashioned by it are essential elements in the climate of modern civilization. Professor Ralph W. Tyler, chairman of the Department of Education, University of Chicago, analyzed an important aspect of the significance of the urban community, in the September issue of *The Elementary School Journal*. He addressed himself particularly to the "Relations of the Urban Community and the Modern School." His analysis does much to clear away the old view of the modern city as the rural town grown large and of the ways of its citizens as essentially no different from the villagers of yesterday.

The "continuous and chaotic stimulation" of modern cities is new. At no time in history were citizens as assailed endlessly by noises and cries and lights and other appeals and attacks upon the senses. Never was there such ceaseless, chaotic stimulation on so wide a scale. Nor did any urban community ever depend upon mechanisms as ours does. They contribute much not only to the size but also to the impersonality of the modern city. Social distance has increased greatly, as a result.

Modern urban communities are commercialized as few, if any, were in the past. Necessities and comforts of daily life, and leisure and other interests are pro-

vided for by purchase and not by home production as formerly. The modern city requires a complex organization unknown in the past. Never were there so many organizations, even in small towns, to cater to political, welfare, educational, religious, recreational, business, and social needs. These organizations are divisive and need cooperation. It is not often that we see the same individuals at meetings of our church, legion post, club, and party caucus.

These characteristics of urban communities mean much to the school. The toll taken of the nerves of city dwellers is well known. What can the school contribute to easing the tension besides teaching compensating recreational activities? As a counterweight to mechanization, should the schools stress handicrafts and mental pursuits? Can schools provide a warm, emotional climate to relieve the chills of impersonality? Probably a devotion to serving others will help recompense for our commercialism. Many schools now seek ways to serve their community and participate in welfare projects. An antidote for the divisive loyalties of urban groups can be supplied by the schools through the teaching of the larger loyalties. Awareness and appreciation of the great, overarching groups of the nation and mankind were never more necessary.

Professor Tyler discussed these contributions of the schools, actual and possible. He pointed out the problem confronting the urban school which must make contact with so many organizations in the complex city. The recent stress upon school-community relations is but a recognition of a problem which yet has to be solved.

FREEDOM FROM WANT

Intelligent young people find Stuart Chase stimulating. When they become experts, to whom as doers details loom large, they may care less for the rosy panoramas painted by Mr. Chase. Nonetheless, his grand surveys and far-reaching plans do light up goals and kindle the will to achieve them. From a forthcoming book by Mr. Chase which embodies his report to the Twentieth Century Fund, *Harper's Magazine* in October published some of his conclusions, in an article on "Freedom From Want: A Postwar Budget for America."

The key to his thought is this statement:

Everyone in his senses knows that the major purpose of an economic system should be to produce things the community needs. But only in wartime has this purpose been deliberately served. At all other times from, say, 1750 to 1940, the major purpose of the system has been to provide money income for producers, and especially to reward those who saved and invested their money in new plant. It was assumed by orthodox students that this was the

only right and moral way to produce the things the community needed. By concentrating on something other than the main purpose, the main purpose would be served.

This is the principle which the recent depression, said Mr. Chase, discredited "the dubious principle of hitting something by not aiming at it." The government was forced to move in and save the mass of citizens. In this war we are not using this principle, but follow another. Public welfare is the goal, and our economy is being run consciously and directly for "those ends which everybody knows they should be run for." That principle should be followed in the postwar era, assuming that the United Nations win before being totally exhausted.

Mr. Chase considered two major objectives: the abolition of chronic unemployment and the establishment of minimum standards of well-being for all the people. They require that the nation supply the needs of the entire population for an adequate and satisfactory diet, decent and suitable shelter, proper and sufficient clothing, a thorough health service, and at least a high-school education.

Mr. Chase assumes that our people form one "Great Family" and draws up a "National Minimum Budget" for it. It is an evidence of his perspicacity that he includes education as one of the five minimum essentials, along with food, shelter, clothing, and health. He draws upon census and other authoritative reports to show the extent to which the Great Family receives these essentials. To overcome the deficiencies, after the war, several million workers not hitherto employed in those lines will be required, except for the production of food. But an even larger number of people will not have work after the war. Beyond the minimum essentials is the need for building a greater and enduring civilization. To this end all must be dedicated, as we dedicate and sacrifice ourselves in wartime, and in this everyone will find work as well as sacrifice. He summarized it thus:

We can challenge our citizens with the greatest, most splendid, most uplifting series of public works which any civilization ever dreamed of. Whole cities to be rebuilt and decentralized; mighty watersheds to be tamed, like that of the Tennessee; the forests of America to be put on a perpetual yield basis, the grasslands to be restored; the entire transport system to be integrated; civic centers, libraries, museums, research laboratories, universities, public buildings, to reflect an aspiring culture in a new architecture, and reflect it too in sculpture, painting, music, the theater.

Private business can do much of this work and carry much of the responsibility for a program of plenty for all. But the government will be an active partner. Our war need for ships makes it silly to

distinguish vessels made in government yards from those made by private shipbuilders. In the peacetime frame of reference—community needs and community output—there is no need to distinguish between public and private industry, other than to allocate the work. We are heading deeper into a mixed economy where it will be senseless to damn public enterprises and crown private enterprises with a halo. The ends to be served should determine the best means, public or private, to achieve them.

Mr. Chase suggests a governor for the postwar engine of production. The first charge upon it should be the provision of the five basic necessities for all citizens at all times. No American, ever, should lack them. After these, the mass comforts can be supplied. Then the enduring constructions of a great civilization can be made. No small part of the pride of citizenship is afforded by the great cathedrals and other inspiring public works of a notable culture. Last, the luxury goods can be provided for the more fortunate. Even communist Russia found such goods necessary. They are a spur to ambition and the reward of the top dog, commissar and tycoon today or king and priest of yesterday.

New thinking, new pioneering, new attitudes, new "first things first" are enfolded in our revolutionary world. Mr. Chase would open our eyes to them and inspire us to be worthy of our future.

A pithy summary of Mr. Chases's "American Program of Plenty" is given in the October number of *The Journal of the National Education Association*.

AMERICAN VIEWS ON POST-WAR RECONSTRUCTION

The issues of *Foreign Policy Reports* for September 15 and October 1 present what prominent Americans say about postwar reconstruction. The views are conflicting, which is not surprising, but there is general agreement about basic objectives. As Vice-President Wallace expressed it, this war "is a fight between a slave world and a free world." The common man is struggling to come into his own. Not our people, or the British people, but all people. Then the primary task of postwar reconstruction should be the improvement of the welfare of all. The standard of living of all men must be raised and a free society must be assured all.

No official has yet made it clear how the objective shall be attained, and what has been said is contradictory. The Atlantic Charter speaks of the Four Freedoms, but Mr. Churchill said it did not apply to India. The Charter promises to all nations equal opportunity to reach raw material, yet the phrase, "due respect for . . . existing obligations" holds a denial. It speaks of abandoning force, while an international police force is contemplated.

The problem is intricate and difficult. Whatever the solution, it requires the active support of an informed public opinion. Citizens must know about it and must be willing to support plans for reconstruction; they must be able to criticize them helpfully, and be ready to bear the burdens which reconstruction will impose.

In the September 15 issue, on "U. S. Declarations on Post-War Reconstruction," generous excerpts were quoted from famous speeches by Vice-President Wallace, Secretary Hull and Under-Secretary Welles. The October 1 issue shows "What Americans Think About Post-War Reconstruction." The views of prominent newspaper men are presented, illustrating opinions in the South, North, and West.

The Annual Debate Number of the *Congressional Digest*, in October, dealt with phases of this problem, the subject being, "The United States and Post-War World Organization." The full texts are published of three declarations which sketch the war aims and postwar plans of the United Nations; namely, The Atlantic Charter of August, 1941, and the United Nations' Declaration and The Four Freedoms of January, 1942.

These aims and plans are explained, an account is given of agencies concerned with them, and an analysis is made of the position of the League of Nations relative to postwar planning. From a group of distinguished men and women views are presented, pro and con, on the question, "Will the New Deal's Post-War Program Prove Practicable?"

JAPAN: PREDESTINED RULER OF EARTH?

Some weeks ago Ambassador Grew remarked that Germany may crack again, as she did in 1918, but that Japan never will. Japan will have to be beaten, invaded in force and physically vanquished on her own soil.

Even his long years of personal contact with the Japanese seem short compared with the length of service of C. Burnell Olds in Japan. From 1903 to 1939 Mr. Olds was a missionary there. He served as Chairman of the Board of Trustees of Kobe College and as a member of the Board of Trustees of Doshisha University. His account of "Education for Conquest: The Japanese Way" (*Foreign Affairs* for October) makes plain the basis for Mr. Grew's remark.

The Japanese mind is not easy for us to grasp. Yet we must understand it, especially in order to know how to deal with it after the war, when the Pacific problem is tackled. The description of Japanese education which Mr. Olds gives opens one's eyes to the mind set and life outlook of the Japanese. He sketched the history of education in Japan, described its purposes, and showed its effect upon the people, both men and women.

It is the conviction of the Japanese, bred into their bones by teaching from infancy as a religious axiom, that they are heaven-sent to rule the world. Whatever hardships must be inflicted upon the Japanese themselves and upon other peoples will be compensated when all mankind accepts the glorious mission that these Chosen People owe to all the world. The Japanese are charged by the Divine to make all the world over into one family, "integrated in all its activities, social, political, economic, and cultural, in one august center." The purpose of education is to inculcate that mission, a mission "for justice, for country, for Emperor, for ancestors, for humanity." He who learns how the mission is to be accomplished, is educated. The conviction that such is their divine mission is deepened by the fact that for a half-century or more Japanese arms have not been defeated and Japanese expansion has not been halted.

The system of education is efficient, centralized, and rigid. It permits no individuality and no freedom of thought, and enforces most rigid discipline. The most desirable positions in the State are open to less than twenty per cent of the people. They are filled only by those who successfully complete the course of education and pass the examinations. Since more pass than can be placed, many educated Japanese must join the ranks of the masses who are the hewers of wood and drawers of water and perform the many poorly paid tasks.

Japanese education seems to be based on "the assumption that every man, woman, and child is first of all a member of the State, and that the State has rightful and absolute power over him, body and soul." The implications for an educational system are obvious. From the first the child is subjected to rigid discipline. And every Japanese goes to school, at least until twelve. Care is taken that students do not think for themselves. Memorization is pre-eminent, for the examination is ever impending. The mere task of learning the thousands of characters in the written language puts a premium on memorizing and requires years to complete. Students are superficial. They learn the facts but do not learn how to evaluate them. Nevertheless the accomplishments of the Japanese in medicine and other fields bear witness to the natural talent of the people. But the government is concerned less with developing talent and more with "forcing all into the common mold of uniformity."

Not until the military system is overthrown and the government based upon different principles will it be possible to release the individuality of the Japanese. This thought, implied in Mr. Olds' article, is developed as part of an analysis of the problem of "The Pacific After the War," in the same issue. Its author, S. R. Chow, speaks from the vantage point of his specialty in international law and his

membership on the staffs of Chinese universities and on political bodies.

CONGRESSIONAL REFORM

It is no easy thing for young people to conceive of social invention. When they are engaged in studying the machinery of our government they usually accept existing mechanisms as the only kind possible, rarely perceiving them as inventions and imagining more effective devices. They are startled, for example, by the suggestion that a democracy might devise a better way for its citizens to name officials than by the traditional method of counting ballots. This lack of political imagination is not, of course, confined to young citizens. Perhaps our preoccupation with economic activity which has encouraged mechanical invention has been unfavorable to the kind of thinking required for social invention. Such invention, always occurring even if meagerly, seems now to be receiving attention from more and more people. Will the century or two ahead be distinguished for social invention as the last two have been for mechanical?

Such articles seem therefore very timely as that by William Hard, in *The Reader's Digest* for October, on "Congress's Biggest Job: A Better Congress." It is readable, brief, and suggests new trains of thought. The public holds the legislative branch of the government in greater disesteem than the executive. Mr. Hard believes the basic reason for it is that the executive is more competent. The executive branch is relatively up-to-date. It revises its organization and it employs experts and specialists. The President, in drafting a measure or formulating a policy, has on call the specialized knowledge of experts. ". . . Congress has refused to adopt *modern methods* of informing itself and of organizing itself to meet the intricacy of modern problems. . . . The Congress is living in an age gone by."

Congress has some seventy-six standing committees. It is usual for most of them to be occupied with many technical matters such as currency problems, trade relations, and labor problems. Yet, as a rule, the committees scorn experts and trust to their amateur intelligence.

Their members are corner-grocery-store wise-
acres in an age of calculating-machine-trained
researchers. They spit on the stove and call the
President's experts "starry-eyed idealists" and
"impractical college professors." They thus dis-
play the exact measure of their lag behind the
times.

It is small wonder that the executive has taken so much of the legislative initiative away from Congress. It cannot compete with the experts of the President and those of non-political organizations who place the results of their studies upon his desk. It is noteworthy that the President already has many

plans for postwar reconstruction before him. Is any Congressional committee studying that problem seriously? In all likelihood the bills it will consider will come to it from the executive branch.

That the President and private agencies should prepare plans is a good thing. What is not good is that Congress does not also prepare them. Its committees should have "researchers and thinkers" to supply them with data and suggestions. The committees should be coordinated. They should not overlap. Officials and others lose hours of working time because they must give the same testimony before several committees. A much more efficient, time-saving method of conducting hearings and investigations is now essential. Eight committees hold hearings and deal with the subject of national defense. That means delays, cross purposes, inefficiency. Why not entrust the whole problem to one committee? Congress needs a "Committee on the Organization of Congress."

Congress needs two reforms, said Mr. Hard: ". . . a scientific organization of the committees and a scientific use by those committees of up-to-date expert creative knowledge." An efficient and respected Congress is vital; for its members, as the chosen representatives of the citizenry, are the heart of our democracy.

POLITICAL WAR FOR DEMOCRATIC VICTORY

Beginning with its September issue, *The Nation* launched a new section on "Political War," under the editorship of the well-known publicist, J. Alvarez Del Vayo. Its purposes are to underline the revolutionary character of the war we are in and to aid the democratic groups in all nations to overcome "the forces of reaction and capitulation," and free them from the compulsion of fighting for the conqueror. To these ends political strategy will be developed and stressed as a weapon of political war. Men and women familiar with the situation in various nations will discuss the problem, needs, and strategies, with a view to unifying democratic policies and actions and promoting democratic victory and a people's peace.

A COURSE ON LABOR UNIONS

Dr. Robert G. Andree, formerly dean of boys at Muskegon (Mich.) Senior High School, believes that "Training Youth for Intelligent Membership in Labor Unions" is the business of the senior high school. Many of our youth will soon be union members. As citizens, however, they should know the plan and influence of unions in American life, while as workers they should be intelligent labor-union members. For that, the school should give training as it does for worthy home membership.

In *The Clearing House* for September, Dr. Andree

briefly described the course he gave to seniors at Muskegon. It included the study of the structure of labor unions and their problems, the structure and problems of business as related to labor, union activities, the relation of labor to the community, labor economics, and the history and philosophy of American and European labor movements.

Appended to his article are comments by the presidents of the American Federation of Labor, the Congress of Industrial Organizations, and the Chamber of Commerce of the United States. Both Mr. Green and Mr. Murray speak favorably upon Dr. Andree's proposal, but Mr. Johnston regards it as having no place in the public schools on the ground that it would "promote the special interest of one segment of our economic life."

SOCIAL STUDIES MEETING

At Thanksgiving time, November 26-28, the National Council for the Social Studies held its twenty-

second annual meeting, in New York City. Participating in the conference were members of the Council, and members of the Middle States Association of History and Social Science Teachers and other organizations. An important feature of the conference was the formulation of a statement on the role of the social-studies teacher in wartime America.

Opening on Thursday evening, as the "Town Meeting of the Air," the first of a series of discussions on "Social Education in Wartime and After" was held. On the final day, the sessions were devoted to the important question of education for the post-war world.

Prominent among the leaders of the conference were Allan Nevins, speaking on "British Interest in American History"; George Renner, on "The New Geography"; Howard R. Anderson, on "Critical Thinking in the Social Studies"; Alvin Eurich, on "Consumer Education in Wartime"; George S. Counts, on "The Negro in Wartime"; and Edgar B. Wesley, on "Military History."

Book Reviews and Book Notes

*Edited by RICHARD HEINDEL
University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia*

What's Your Name? By Louis Adamic. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1942. Pp. xv, 248. \$2.50.

This book is a "must" for teachers because it is concerned with the problem of foreign names, whether to change them and if so, how they should be adapted to American usage.

Since Mr. Adamic, in the process of Americanization, has experienced a change in his own name, he is especially qualified to write upon this subject. Most people would agree that in his own case, the perfect solution has been achieved. His Yugoslavian patronymic was spelt Adamić and pronounced Ah-dah'mitch. The Americanization dropped the hook over the c and changed the pronunciation to Ad'amic, thereby evolving a word easy to pronounce, familiar in accent and yet retaining the Slovenian heritage of spelling, so that at a glance one realizes that he is of Balkan descent.

As Mr. Adamic points out, names are of great psychological import as well as being the legal identification of the individual. When it comes to surnames, Juliet's soliloquy, "What's in a name? A rose by any other name would smell as sweet" is sheer poetic license. Names are inescapable factors in economic and social life. Names in our present civilization are not merely tags of the individual; they have innumerable overtones which suggest race,

country and national characteristics as well as being in themselves aesthetically pleasing or displeasing.

We want immigrants to be Americanized, but a complete change of name is not the way to obtain that objective. A name should indicate stock. Names when uncomfortably foreign should be simplified in spelling and adapted in accentuation, but not changed. It is as disconcerting to expect a Bentonelli and find a Benton as it is to expect a Leslie Gordon and meet a Rosenberg.

The chapter which strikes home particularly is the one entitled "Teachers called Them Johnny Sneeze-it and Frankie Whosis." In every class there are some students whose names are unpronounceable and it is for that reason that this book and the question which it discusses are of such immediate interest.

AGNES ADDISON
New York City

What's In A Novel? By Helen E. Haines. New York: Columbia University Press, 1942. Pp. xi, 283. \$2.75.

Realizing that at the present more than ever before, perhaps, "the diversified alluvium of fiction sifts into every problem and phase of living," Miss Haines, in *What's in a Novel?* discusses the content of novels in terms of experience value rather than of aesthetic organization. Life gives knowledge; non-

fiction books are an accepted source of learning; and Miss Haines amasses much evidence in support of the importance of novels as serious reading: they have the peculiar merit of being able to combine the experience-facts of life with the test-tube facts of science, making a third major source of knowledge.

In effect, *What's In a Novel?* is a tremendous anthology of novels, fully, wittily, and conscientiously annotated. Miss Haines groups the books according to content—those dealing with historical fact, with the family, with social problems; with an individual, a specific moment, or a particular place. Fantasy and the crime novel are briefly dealt with at the end.

In her organization of material Miss Haines emphasizes the historical recreative function of fiction. Not only the comparatively narrow field of the "historical novel," into which fall such books as *Oliver Wiswell*, *Gone With the Wind*, and *Quietly My Captain Waits*, but many other novels concerned with "Lives, Times and Places" or social and religious questions (*In Dubious Battle*, *Native Son*, *The Old Wives' Tale*), may be counted among the vital sources of historical knowledge in the mind of the man who reads "to relax" as well as to learn.

Miss Haines' willingness to see worth in books falling far short of absolute standards renders her judgments valuable to the reader more interested in content than in form; for if a book be defective in construction, yet graphic in portrayal of a man, a scene, or an era, Miss Haines emphasizes the latter, not the former point. *Gone With The Wind* is praised for its picture of Southern Civil War life rather than condemned for inconsistent psychology; books too narrow in scope to merit the exclusive label "literature" may have their very worth in the fact that they show a tiny scrap of life's history in its minute detail.

Helen Haines has here compiled an excellent guide to fiction, so arranged that one may readily look up books according to their subject matter and their era. Selective lists of books representative of the literature of the countries of Latin America and Europe, and of the states of the United States, follow the chapters dealing with national and regional fiction. A discussion of Negro fiction is concluded with a list of twenty-five books by Negro writers, many of whom are discussed in the text.

Wealth of knowledge, lucidity of expression, and control of her material permit Miss Haines to fit hundreds of novels into a large general plan designed to emphasize the informal "teaching" values of the content of fiction, and prove the novel to be not an escape, but a life experience.

RUTH WOLF

Upper Darby, Pennsylvania

Introducing Australia. By C. Hartley Grattan. New York: John Day Company, 1942. Pp. xvi, 331. \$3.00.

This book is even more timely than Mr. Grattan could well have realized when he planned and wrote it. The events of the last few months have focused American attention upon Australia as never before, bringing home a realization of widespread ignorance of our neighbor across the Pacific, and emphasizing the need for a compact, reliable and readable source of information. This need the present volume supplies.

Mr. Grattan's account does not lend itself to easy summarizing, at least so far as conclusions are concerned. The reader is warned more than once against thinking of Australian conditions in terms of their supposed analogies in the United States. For as the author is at pains to explain, Australian conditions are apt to present fundamental differences, the ignoring of which will lead to serious misconceptions. Therefore, while comparisons between the two countries are made from time to time, Australia is presented as a community which is in important respects unique, and has to be understood on its own account. The basis for such understanding is laid by the plentiful information and shrewd interpretation which Mr. Grattan supplies. After introductory geographical and historical accounts he proceeds to an illuminating analysis of Australia's economic activities, which reveals among other things that manufacturing looms larger in Australia's economy than does the production of raw materials, and (what will surprise most readers less) that about fifty per cent of Australia's foreign trade is with Great Britain. He sketches the struggle of the Australian working man for the relatively privileged position which he now enjoys, gives an account of the cultural life of the sub-continent, and analyzes Australia's political life and her orientation with Britain. The book concludes with a fairly full treatment of recent events and the current situation. The author's approach to his problem is not coldly abstract; it seems fair to characterize it as that of an intelligent liberal.

LEONIDAS DODSON

University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

The Real Italians; a Study in European Psychology.
By Carlo Sforza. New York: Columbia University Press, 1942. Pp. x, 156. \$2.00.

With the founding of the Free Italy movement in Montevideo this August, the Italians in exile have ranged Italy among the countries dominated by Nazi Germany. At this moment it is of great interest to hear from the head of the movement as to what he believes to be the true character of Italy and the Italians. In a series of brief essays, like conversation

after dinner, Count Sforza discusses the home, the literature, the church, the international attitudes of Italy—not as a scholar, with statistical data, but as an Italian speaking of the things he knows.

No one who knows Italy will scorn the Italian people or doubt Count Sforza's thesis that the interlude of fascism will appear insignificant in the long view of their history. They have, after all, the longest record of civilization in Western Europe, and much of it democratic; they are at once the innovators of the modern age and the bridge by which we communicate with the past. It is only fair to admit, however, that the Roman Empire which Count Sforza so despises (which the fascists admire) was also an episode in Italian history, and that many of the city-states afford as bloody a story of tyranny as Rome itself. Is it not almost a point of pride among anti-fascists that nazism (though not Hitler) is an Italian invention? In fact it is not enough to maintain, because the Italians are individualists, that totalitarianism is "the state of mind most foreign to the Italian character." Individualism is open to ambition; and conversely it tempts the good to say, like Dr. Johnson, that they do not care twopence what form of government they live under. This double moral, of the tendency of the free individual to neglect the preservation of his own freedom, is one of the lessons Italy has for the world.

A similar problem, that of the freedom of national groups, is the real motif of the book. With his eyes on the Swiss confederation, Count Sforza affirms his belief that both Italy and Europe can achieve this state of independent cooperation for the good of all. Such a faith, in a man continually balked by the forces of totalitarianism, is the best of arguments for the essential value of Italy's humanistic philosophy.

Because it is short, informal, and agreeable to read, the value of this book might be underrated. Historians will be able to point out inconsistencies; economists will be disturbed because the author describes the Italian's love of the land without admitting that this land is overpopulated. It remains, however, an eloquent statement of faith in the Italian people—or in common humanity—and it should be read by all believers in democracy as an antidote to the cynicism of war.

ELIZABETH WILDER

Library of Congress
Washington, D.C.

The Boy Who Could Do Anything and Other Mexican Folk Tales. Retold by Anita Brenner. Illustrated by Jean Charlot. New York: William R. Scott, Inc., 1942. \$2.50.

Librarians of progressive schools may pause a moment before putting this book on their shelves, but

for students of the social sciences its value is unquestionable. It is a commentary on our civilization that we should think of such tales as children's stories; actually they are the stories that only old women tell out of their racial wisdom, sitting with their families on the doorstep in the long tropical nights. They are full of the presence of death, of the forces of nature, and the injustice of society, which make up the life of the Mexican peasant. Death is not alien, but natural; hunger, theft, murder and prison do not occasion surprise. Black magic and good magic explain what would otherwise be mysterious in the universe. Like all stories of oppressed peoples, these have astonishing and happy endings; what is unusual is the solid optimism with which the most terrible events are related. The Mexican people, in spite of everything, have never lost a dignified conviction that the land is theirs, that the gods in the mountain are on their side, and that they can produce heroes who will destroy giants or the Devil himself. This, not a broken spirit, is the foundation of their patience.

Especially fascinating to the student of cultures will be the mixture of primitive attitudes and modern machinery. The Devil takes a hand in building a railroad bridge, the municipal judge deals with magic and the doctor rushes to attend a man-eating giant, or a pre-Columbian god hangs colonial churchbells in a modern city. This is all in agreement with the sight of an Indian from the mountains, his pack of crockery on his back—and the charcoal-burner and the chicken, and the bunch of flowers for the church, too—scuttling through the traffic of Mexico City. Not a little of the credit for this authenticity goes to Miss Brenner, whose sympathetic transcription of the stories preserves the full flavor of Mexican narrative. The addition of Jean Charlot's illustrations make it an enchanting book. Certainly, to the inquiring mind, such a group of stories—pure unmitigated source material—will outweigh most of the commentaries of more or less inspired visitors to Mexico.

ELIZABETH WILDER

Library of Congress
Washington, D.C.

TEXTBOOKS AND OTHER TEACHING AIDS

America In A World At War. By William B. Brown, Maxwell S. Stewart, and Walter E. Meyer. New York: Silver Burdett Company, 1942. Pp. vii, 328. Illustrated. \$1.80.

High school students will find the answers to most of their questions about the present war in this very readable and most enlightening book. The book can be very profitably used by teachers of problems of democracy for a unit covering the war. Each chapter includes a splendid biography of con-

temporary materials which can be used by the teacher for a more extensive study of the war. The questions at the end of the chapters provide a basis for some very stimulating class discussions. Students will find the unusual illustrations and the striking maps effective aids in their study of *America In A World At War*.

The book contains thirteen well written chapters which give the students a rather complete survey of the whole war situation. The chapters on the technical phases of the war such as the changing strategy of modern warfare, the organization and activities of the Army, and the Navy's part in the war, are especially well done and should appeal very much to adventure loving students.

The question of "What Are We Fighting For?" is very nicely answered by the following quotation:

... When we defend America, we are defending a very successful going concern. We are defending a nation, which has the resources to maintain its people in comfort, and also the manpower, the ingenuity, and the capacity for organization which together give promise of a great, expanding, humane civilization.

"What About After the War?" is another question posed by students. To that question the authors give the following answer:

Now is the time to dream great dreams, to look far ahead to a day when nations will lay down their arms, to a day when mankind will find opportunity to build a better way of life than that which existed before this war. This crisis will pass. A new day will come. Let that new day find this nation and its people exerting a world leadership to extend democracy and the great principles of human freedom.

FRANCIS J. CARBON

Sharon, Pennsylvania

The American Scene. By Irving R. Melbo, A. O. Bowden, Margaret Rose Kollock and Nellie Poyntz Ferry. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1942. Pp. xiii, 559. \$1.96.

This well-written book on the American scene may be used as a basic text for either a high school course in sociology or in problems of democracy. The material is so arranged that it can be used for either and can be adjusted for use in either a one-term course or a full-year course. In this text, the authors stress living in a democracy. Background material in general social evolution is included to afford historical perspective and informative comparisons.

Professor S. Howard Patterson states in the editor's foreword to teachers:

The authorship represents a rich fusion of divergent viewpoints, of various disciplines, of distant geographical areas, and of different edu-

cational institutions; it brings together the East and the West, the high school and the college, the specialist in content and method.

The book contains ten units, each of which can be expanded or shortened to meet the needs of individual teachers and classes. The units deal with learning to control the environment, human nature, family life, the community, the political institutions, economic life, the more abundant life, educational and inspirational institutions, social control, and social progress. They cover a great deal of material; hence, some of the units cannot be treated fully. The unit on human nature is particularly good since it deals with some of the problems of adolescence, such as the development of personality, "improving ourselves," and keeping mentally fit. The unit on the family is well done although it is rather brief. The unit on education and inspirational institutions, although treated more from the viewpoint of sociology, is an addition not usually found in secondary school textbooks.

The physical make-up of the book is better than average and should appeal to the student. The book is richly illustrated and there are many excellent graphs which can be studied with profit. The style of the authors is very readable and should give the students little vocabulary difficulties.

FRANCIS J. CARBON

Sharon, Pennsylvania

Our Democracy and Its Problems. By J. L. O'Rourke. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1942. Pp. xxi, 711. Illustrated. \$1.88.

This book is designed as a textbook for a course in problems of American democracy usually offered in the eleventh or twelfth grade. In the words of the author: "The solution of the problems of today and tomorrow has been kept constantly in mind and has determined the selection and organization of material and the method of presentation." This is the third in a series of social science textbooks by the author, which are based upon research to determine the materials and teaching methods to acquaint pupils with public affairs and social problems, create a desire to participate in the government, and develop the ability to deal with social and economic problems. Twenty-five thousand pupils in one hundred and fifty communities provided this background data.

The book is well organized into six parts: The Basis of American Democracy, Our Economic Life, Social Problems, The United States and World Problems, Political Organization and Problems of Government, and Problems of the Individual. It is practical in approach, up-to-date in treatment, forward-looking in attitude, and psychologically attractive in presentation. The pupil is encouraged to see the social and economic problems as his own. Empha-

sis is placed upon the possibilities and needs of the future. Problems are presented objectively and impartially, and the pupil is encouraged to think independently rather than accept ready made solutions. Attention is given to foreign relations with emphasis upon relations with Latin American countries. Problems of defense and war are considered with a look toward the problems of post war times. Special effort is made to encourage an understanding and appreciation of democracy and to promote vocational adjustment of the individual and to secure a desirable personal relationship between the individual and the social order.

In the way of teaching helps, there are chapter previews, suggested assignments, suggestions for reports and discussions, and chapter references. Illustrations in the form of pictures, graphs, and charts contribute materially to the volume.

M. L. GOETTING

Baylor University
Waco, Texas

Living in the Social World. By James A. Quinn and Arthur Repke. Chicago: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1942. Illustrated. Pp. viii, 536. \$1.92.

This book promises to be a most usable high school sociology text. The authors, in accordance with advanced educational procedure, have based their book on a comprehensive study and comparison of nationwide sociology courses and textbooks, all of which was made possible by the cooperation of public school officials, teachers, and high school pupils.

Other than following progressive and scientific educational procedures in securing material for their text, the authors have provided well-rounded content by stressing the cause and effect processes inherent in the very nature of social life in its normal rather than abnormal and unnatural aspects. For instance, criminal tendencies are presented in the section dealing with regular governmental functioning rather than in their sordid phases. The authors have treated so fully social problems, principles, and institutions that the reviewer wonders why they devoted only half a page to public opinion, a subject which is becoming of increased importance in social living.

When it comes to organization, the authors have made a real contribution to textbook publications, since they divided the book into nine units which in turn are sub-divided into chapters or problems. And at the end of each chapter appear lists of words, a variety of questions, and varied recent references. With respect to the questions, however, the critic feels that more of them should challenge the pupils' power to interpret, to analyze, to explain why, and to prove this or that. Furthermore, the references might have included such pamphlets as *Town Meet-*

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Write for further information.

McGRAW-HILL BOOK COMPANY, INC.

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New York

ing and Public Affairs Pamphlets, as well as the recent publication edited by Erling M. Hunt, *America Organizes to Win the War*.

That the 215 well-chosen illustrations enhance the value of this book goes without comment. So applicable are the pictures that looking at them and carefully reading the explanation beneath will give the boys and girls a greater comprehension and appreciation of sociology and social problems. The pictures depict world-wide situations and are placed on the pages in such a pleasing variety of ways as to add attractiveness to the volume.

JANET BASSETT JOHNSON
Patterson Park High School
Baltimore, Maryland

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

A History of Historical Writing. By James Westfall Thompson, with the collaboration of Bernard J. Holm. Two volumes. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1942. Pp. xvi, 676; ix, 674. Set, \$14.00.

A monumental work on historical writing from the earliest times to the present. Includes copious bibliographies.

Rebels and Gentlemen: Philadelphia in the Age of Franklin. By Carl and Jessica Bridenbaugh. New York: Reynal and Hitchcock, 1942. Pp. xvii, 393. Illustrated. \$3.50.

The story of Philadelphia in the colonial period.

A History of Latin America. By David R. Moore, New York: Prentice-Hall, 1942. Pp. xiv, 942. \$4.25.

The history of Latin America from its European and American background to its present day relationships.

Our World and How We Use It. By Edna Fay Campbell, Paul B. Sears, I. James Cullen, and Paul R. Hanna. Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1942. Pp. 287. Illustrated. \$1.40.

A study of differences in environment and their effect on men's lives.

British Policy in Palestine. By Paul L. Hanna. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Public Affairs, 1942. Pp. xiii, 214. \$3.00.

The policies and problems of Palestine in wartime.

New World Constitutional Harmony: A Pan-Ameri-Canadian Panorama. By George Jaffin. New York: Columbia Law Review, 1942. Pp. 53.

A broad, integral perspective in studying constitutional problems.

Problems and Tests in Civics. By James B. Edmonson and Arthur Dondineau. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1942. Pp. v, 143. \$.60.

A workbook prepared to facilitate the use of the problem method in the field of community civics.

Social-Studies Skills. By Forrest E. Long and Helen Halter. New York: Inor Publishing Company, 1942. Pp. viii, 117. Illustrated. \$1.50.

Advice and tests on methods of study and deportment.

Politics and Political Organizations in America. By Theodore W. Cousens. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1942. Pp. xi, 617. Illustrated. \$4.00.

A political science textbook dealing with political organization from the time of Washington to the third term of Roosevelt.

Our Side Is Right. By Ralph Barton Perry. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1942. Pp. vi, 153. \$1.75.

The ideals of democracy vs. Hitlerism.

The Rise of Our Free Nation. By Edna McGuire. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1942. Pp. x, 774, xlviii. Illustrated. \$1.88.

A textbook of United States history from the time of Columbus to our present day situation.

This Land We Defend. By Hugh Hammond Bennett and William Clayton Pryor. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1942. Pp. xii, 107. Illustrated. \$1.50.

The past and the future of soil conservation as told by the head of The Soil Conservation Service of the U. S. Department of Agriculture and his associate.

Early Financial and Economic History of Pennsylvania. By Leighton P. Stradley. New York: Commerce Clearing House, 1942. Pp. iv, 85.

A review of the financial and economic history of Pennsylvania to 1873.

Revolt of the Pueblo Indians of New Mexico and Otermin's Attempted Reconquest, 1680-1682. Edited by Charles Wilson Hackett; Translations by Charmion Clair Shelby. Two volumes. Albuquerque: University of New Mexico Press, 1942. Pp. ccx, 262; xii, 430. Set \$10.00.

The story of the Pueblo revolt as told in the contemporary records.

The Principles of Power. The Great Political Crisis of History. By Guglielmo Ferrero. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1942. Pp. ix, 333. \$3.50.

Foundations and motivating forces of governments during the last few centuries bringing to light the various revolutionary factors involved in the outbreak of the Second World War.

Industrial Concentration and Price Inflexibility. By Alfred C. Neal. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Public Affairs, 1942. Pp. x, 173. \$2.75.

A new study of economic processes.

The Jews in Spain. A Political-Economic Study. By Abraham A. Neuman. Philadelphia: The Jewish Publication Society of America, 1942. Pp. xxxi, 286. Illustrated.

The Jews in Spain. A Social-Cultural Study. By Abraham A. Neuman. Philadelphia: The Jewish Publication Society of America, 1942. Pp. xi, 399. Illustrated.

Jewish social, political and cultural life during the Middle Ages in Spain.

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